

# THE LANCET

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Feb. 3, 10, 17. Three, on the Instincts and Habits of the Higher Animals, by Professor Rymer Jones, of King's College.  
Feb. 24, March 3, 10, 17. Four, on Palestine, by J. S. Buckingham, Esq.  
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The Director to be chosen in the room of Jonathan Brundrett, Esq., at the above meeting, will remain in office until the 31st of June, 1842.

The following is the only gentleman who has been put in nomination as a Candidate to fill this vacancy: Edward Lawton, Esq., of Drapers' Hall.

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## REVIEWS

*Diary and Letters of Madame D'Arblay, Author of 'Evelina,' 'Cecilia,' &c. Edited by her Niece. Vol. I. (1778—1780.) Colburn.*

POUNCEPROUSLY announced, and long expected as this work has been,—two circumstances in its disfavour,—it proves to be at least as entertaining as the prefatory advertisements promised. The literary coteries of a remarkable period are brought before us in all the fulness of their gossip—in all the glory of the authority by which (so they fondly thought!) names and fames were to be established for ever. 'Tis a fine lesson for the writers of our own generation, to read of the stir made by the appearance of 'Evelina.' The "dark sayings" of Samivel Yeller, the incomparable, have not been more liberally quoted than Madame Duval's "*Ma foi*." Nor have Richard Swiveller's mosaics of Moore and Haynes Bayly, engrossed more attention than the horse-play of Captain Mervin, or the *fadaises* of Lovel and Lady Louisa. But enough of this;—though to moralize be something of a trick of ours, who have found "sermons" in the bustle of an inn-yard, with its sociable groups, about to be scattered hither and thither like beads when the string is broken; and "good" in the pit of a theatre, as we have counted over the dynasties of Wit, Criticism, and honest human feeling, which have reigned there in turn, and passed away;—we will not now speculate on the matters which have here furnished us as much thought as entertainment. Let the curtain rise, that the reader may behold Dr. Johnson, Mrs. Thrale, Mrs. Montagu, Sir Joshua Reynolds—the rest of the Streatham and Bolt Court circles—AND her who occupies the centre of the stage, "the ingenious, learned, and most profound Fanny Burney!" Central, indeed, in the fullest sense of the term, is the authoress of 'Evelina,' according to her own estimation. We do not, indeed, go, the ill-natured length of the writer in the *Quarterly*, whose summing up, on a former occasion, convicted the lady of as much folly as vanity, and deprived her success of everything like solid reality; yet we cannot but perceive how largely she was favoured by Time and Chance;—how, beloved as she was by some of the most brilliant personages of her day, and, like Lady Townly, "thankful down to the ground" for their good will and good word,—strong indications of self-commendation wearing the mask of reserve and modesty, painful to witness, peep out in every page of this *Diary*. Had she been less tremulously alive to her own claims, she would have journalized her triumphs more sparingly. The minute disclosures of her letters are ascribable to more amiable motives. To near and dear friends the praise lavished on a beloved object cannot be too minutely displayed. But we are entering upon homily the second, and our readers are waiting for Miss Burney.

Well, then, they must suppose the mighty deed of 'Evelina's' introduction to the public accomplished—they must imagine the verdict of the contemporary press, which, in her day, printed its judgments on imaginative literature in milk and water, not ink: all the hopes and fears of Sally, Susy, and Hettina (the sister Burneys), must be disposed of; and genial Mrs. Thrale's first raptures must be conceived as soul-subduing to the blushing culprit, beyond all power of expression. Dr. Johnson now begins to rise on the horizon—the scene being Streatham, in which formidable abode of Taste and Hospitality the shrinking Miss Burney had been deposited by her proud father. It is im-

possible, however, to assert that the following *ana* appear for the first time :—

"The next name that was started, was that of Sir John Hawkins: and Mrs. Thrale said, 'Why now, Dr. Johnson, he is another of those whom you suffer nobody to abuse but yourself; Garrick is too one; for if any other person speaks against him, you brot beat him in a minute!'" 'Why, madam,' answered he, 'they don't know when to abuse him, and when to praise him; I will allow no man to speak ill of David that he does not deserve; and as to Sir John, why really I believe him to be an honest man at the bottom: but to be sure he is penurious, and he is mean, and it must be owned he has a degree of brutality, and a tendency to savageness, that cannot easily be defended.' We all laughed, as he meant we should, at this curious manner of speaking in his favour; and he then related an anecdote that he said he knew to be true in regard to his meanness. He said that Sir John and he once belonged to the same club, but that as he ate no supper after the first night of his admission, he desired to be excused paying his share. 'And was he excused?' 'O yes; for no man is angry at another for being inferior to himself! we all scorned him, and admitted his plea. For my part, I was such a fool as to pay my share for wine, though I never tasted any. But Sir John was a most *unclubbable* man!"

Amiable as Fanny Burney was, we infer from sundry indications in these journals (instance its entries to Hannah More's discredit), that she recorded, *without any particular reluctance*, this judgment on the rival historian of music. We proceed with *tea-table talk* picked up at Streat-ham:—

"Dr. Johnson was gaily sociable. He gave a very droll account of the children of Mr. Langton. 'Who,' he said, 'might be very good children if they were let alone; but the father is never easy when he is not making them do something which they cannot do; they must repeat a fable, or a speech, or the Hebrew alphabet; and they might as well count twenty, for what they know of the matter: however, the father says half, for he prompts every other word. But he could not have chosen a man who would have been less entertained by such means.' \* \* Mrs. Thrale then asked whether Mr. Langton took any better care of his affairs than formerly? 'No, madam,' cried the doctor, 'and never will; he complains of the ill effects of habit, and rests contentedly upon a confessed indolence. He told his father himself that he had 'no turn to economy,' but a thief might as well plead that he had 'no turn to honesty.'" At night, Mrs. Thrale asked if I would have anything? I answered, 'No'; but Dr. Johnson said, 'Yes: she is used, madam, to suppers; she would like an egg or two, and a few slices of ham, or a rasher—a rasher, I believe, would please her better.' How ridiculous! However, nothing could persuade Mrs. Thrale not to have the cloth laid; and Dr. Johnson was so facetious, that he challenged Mr. Thrale to get drunk! 'I wish,' said he, 'my master would say to me, Johnson, if you will oblige me, you will call for a bottle of Toulon, and then we will set to it, glass for glass, till it is done; and after that, I will say, Thrale, if you will oblige me, you will call for another bottle of Toulon, and then we will set to it, glass for glass, till that is done; and by the time we should have drunk the two bottles, we should be so happy, and such good friends, that we should fly into each other's arms, and both together call for the third!' I ate nothing, that they might not again use such a ceremony with me. Indeed, their late dinners forbid suppers, especially as Dr. Johnson made me eat cake at tea, for he held it till I took it, with an odd or absent complaisance."

This last trait, by the way, is an amusing instance of the attentions which Boanerges thought it decorous to pay to the fair sex,—provided they pleased him. No one can have forgotten the rough colloquy, by which, to Goldsmith's torment, he ruffled the feathers of the aristocratic ladies at Miss Cotterel's, when he thought they despised his hob-nailed shoes and coarse stockings. But, his dues granted—the lion's share given to him,—he was gallant,

courteous, and observant. He delighted to call "little Burney" "a toad," "a sly young rogue," and to inveigle her into parlour-window *tête-à-têtes*. Even her cap found favour in his critical eyes, and, blind as he was, the caps of the fair he delighted to honour were matters of great moment to him :—

"They tell me of a Miss Brown, who often visits here, and who has a slovenly way of dressing. 'And when she comes down in a morning,' says Mrs. Thrale, 'her hair will be all loose, and her cap half off; and then Dr. Johnson, who sees something is wrong, and does not know where the fault is, concludes it is in the cap, and says, 'My dear, what do you wear such a vile cap for?' 'I'll change it, sir,' cries the poor girl, 'if you don't like it.' 'Ay, do,' he says; and away runs poor Miss Brown; but when she gets on another, it's the same thing, for the cap has nothing to do with the fault. And then she wonders Dr. Johnson should not like the cap, for she thinks it very pretty. And so on with her gown, which he also makes her change; but if the poor girl were to change through all her wardrobe, unless she could put her things on better, he would still find fault.' When Dr. Johnson was gone, she told me of my mother's being obliged to change her dress. 'Now,' said she, 'Mrs. Burney had on a very pretty green jacket and coat, and was going to church; but Dr. Johnson, who, I suppose, did not like her in a jacket, saw something was the matter, and so found fault with the linen: and he looked and peered, and then said, 'Why, madam, this won't do! you must not go to church so!' So away went poor Mrs. Burney, and changed her gown! And when she had done so, he did not like it, but he did not know why; so he told her she should not wear a black hat and cloak in summer! Oh, how he did bother poor Mrs. Burney! and himself too, for if the things had been put on to his mind, he would have taken no notice of them.' 'Why,' said Mr. Thrale, very dryly, 'I don't think Mrs. Burney a very good dresser.' 'Last time she came,' said Mrs. Thrale, 'she was in a white cloak, and she told Dr. Johnson she had got her old white cloak scoured on purpose to oblige him! 'Scoured!' says he, 'ay,—have you, madam?'—so he see-sawed, for he could not for shame find fault, but he did not seem to like the scouring."

But there was something which the Doctor relished even less than Mrs. Burney's scoured cloak :—

"My dear," continued he with a very droll look, "what makes you so fond of the Scotch? I don't like you for that.—I hate these Scotch, and so must you. I wish Branghton had sent the dog to jail! That Scotch dog Macartney." "Why, sir," said Mrs. Thrale, "don't you remember he says he would, but that he should get nothing by it?" "Why, ay, true," cried the Doctor, see-sawing very solemnly, "that, indeed, is some palliation for his forbearance. But I must not have you so fond of the Scotch, my little Burney; make your hero what you will but a Scotchman. Besides, you write Scotch,—you say 'the one,'—my dear, that's not English. Never use that phrase again." "Perhaps," says Mrs. Thrale, "it may be used in Macartney's letter, and then it will be a propriety." "No, madam, no!" cried he; you can't make a beauty of it; it is in the third volume; put it in Macartney's letter, and welcome!—that, or anything that is nonsense." "Why, surely," cried I, "the poor man is used ill enough by the Branghtons." "But Branghton," said he, "only hates him because of his wretchedness,—poor fellow!—But, my dear love, how should he ever have eaten a good dinner before he came to England?" And then he laughed violently at young Branghton's idea."

Johnson's "universal readiness" on all subjects,—remarked by our journalist on the occasion of his most happily explaining the name of the new French colour, a "*soupir étouffé*,"—sometimes took odd forms, when applying itself to the amusement of ladies. We fear the following may have appeared before, but it is too rich to be missed :—

“ ‘And yet,’ continued the Doctor, with the most comical look, ‘I have known all the wits, from Mrs.

Montagu down to Bet Flint!" "Bet Flint!" cried Mrs. Thrale; "pray who is she?" "Oh, a fine character, madam! She was habitually a slut and a drunkard, and occasionally a thief and a harlot." "And, for Heaven's sake, how came you to know her?" "Why, madam, she figured in the literary world, too!" Bet Flint wrote her own life, and called herself *Cassandra*, and it was in verse;—it began:

When Nature first ordained my birth,  
A diminutive I was born on earth;  
And then I came from a dark abode,  
Into a gay and gaudy world.

So Bet brought me her verses to correct; but I gave her half-a-crown, and she liked it as well. Bet had a fine spirit;—she advertised for a husband, but she had no success, for she told me no man aspired to her! Then she hired very handsome lodgings and a footboy; and she got a harpsichord, but Bet could not play; however, she put herself in fine attitudes, and drummed." Then he gave an account of another of these geniuses, who called herself by some fine name, I have forgotten what. "She had not quite the same stock of virtue," continued he, "nor the same stock of honesty as Bet Flint; but I suppose she envied her accomplishments, for she was so little moved by the power of harmony, that while Bet Flint thought she was drumming very divinely, the other jade had her indicted for a nuisance!" "And pray what became of her, sir?" "Why, madam, she stole a quilt from the man of the house, and he had her taken up; but Bet Flint had a spirit not to be subdued; so when she found herself obliged to go to jail, she ordered a sedan chair, and bid her footboy walk before her. However, the boy proved refractory, for he was ashamed, though his mistress was not." "And did she ever get out of jail again, sir?" "Yes, madam; when she came to her trial, the judge acquitted her. 'So now,' she said to me, 'the quilt is my own, and now I'll make a petticoat of it.' Oh, I loved Bet Flint!" Oh, how we all laughed! Then he gave an account of another lady, who called herself *Laurinda*, and who also wrote verses and stole furniture; but he had not the same affection for her, he said, though she too "was a lady who had high notions of honour." Then followed the history of another, who called herself *Hortensia*, and who walked up and down the park repeating a book of *Virgil*. "But," said he, "though I know her story, I never had the good fortune to see her." After this he gave us an account of the famous Mrs. *Pinkethman*; "And she," he said, "told me she owed all her misfortunes to her wit; for she was so unhappy as to marry a man who thought himself also a wit, though I believe she gave him not implicit credit for it, but it occasioned much contradiction and ill-will." "Bless me, sir!" cried Mrs. Thrale, "how can all these vagabonds contrive to get at you, of all people?" "O the dear creatures!" cried he, laughing heartily, "I can't but be glad to see them!"

A few pages further, we find severities inflicted upon Fanny Brown, even more humiliating than the Doctor's condemnation of her jonquil ribbons;—but we must give the whole scene:—

"He gave us an account of Mrs. *Lennox*. Her 'Female Quixote' is very justly admired here. But Mrs. Thrale says that though her books are generally approved, nobody likes her. I find she, among others, waited on Dr. Johnson upon her commencing writer, and he told us that, at her request, he carried her to Richardson. 'Poor Charlotte Lennox!' continued he; when we came to the house, she desired me to leave her, 'for,' says she, 'I am under great restraint in your presence, but if you leave me alone with Richardson I'll give you a very good account of him,' however, I fear poor Charlotte was disappointed, for she gave me no account at all!"—Some time after, turning suddenly to me, he said, 'Miss Burney, what sort of reading do you delight in? History?—travels?—poetry?—or romances?' 'O sir,' cried I, 'I dread being catechised by you. I dare not make any answer, for I fear whatever I should say would be wrong!' 'Whatever you should say—how's that?' 'Why, not whatever I should—' but whatever I could say." He laughed, and to my great relief spared me any further questions upon the subject.—"Do you remember, sir," said Mrs. Thrale, "how you tormented poor Miss Brown about reading?" "She might soon be tormented, madam," answered

he, "for I am not yet quite clear she knows what a book is." "Oh for shame!" cried Mrs. Thrale; "she reads not only English, but French and Italian. She was in Italy a great while." "Pho!" exclaimed he; "Italian, indeed! Do you think she knows as much Italian as *Rose Fuller* does English?" "Well, well," said Mrs. Thrale, "*Rose Fuller* is a very good young man, for all he has not much command of language, and though he is silly enough, yet I like him very well, for there is no manner of harm in him." Then she told me that he once said, "Dr. Johnson's conversation is so instructive that I'll ask him a question." "Pay, sir, what is *Palmyra*?" I have often heard of it, but never knew what it was." "Palmyra, sir?" said the Doctor; "why, it is a hill in Ireland, situated in a bog, and has palm-trees at the top, whence it is called *Palm-mire*."—But Miss Brown, continued she, "is by no means such a simpleton as Dr. Johnson supposes her to be; she is not very deep, indeed, but she is a sweet, and a very ingenious girl, and nobody admired Miss *Streatfield* more. But she made a more foolish speech to Dr. Johnson than she would have done to anybody else, because she was so frightened and embarrassed that she knew not what she said. He asked her some question about reading, and she did, to be sure, make a very silly answer; but she was so perplexed and bewildered, that she hardly knew where she was, and so she said the beginning of a book was as good as the end, or the end as good as the beginning, or some such stuff; and Dr. Johnson told her of it so often, saying, 'Well, my dear, which part of a book do you like best now?' that poor Fanny Brown burst into tears." "I am sure I should have compassion for her," cried I, "for nobody would be more likely to have blundered out such, or any such speech, from fright and terror." "You?" cried Dr. Johnson. "No; you are another thing; she who could draw *Smith's* and *Branghons*, is quite another thing." Mrs. Thrale then told some other stories of his degrading opinion of us poor fair sex; I mean in general, for in particular he does them noble justice. Among others, was a Mrs. Somebody who spent a day here once, and of whom he asked, "Can she read?" "Yes, to be sure," answered Mrs. Thrale; "we have been reading together this afternoon." "And what book did you get for her?" "Why, what happened to lie in the way, *Hogarth's Analysis of Beauty*." "Hogarth's *Analysis of Beauty*! What made you choose that?" "Why, sir, what would you have had me take?" "What she could have understood." "Cowhide, or 'Cinderella'!" "O Dr. Johnson!" cried I; "'tis not for nothing you are feared!" "Oh, you're a rogue!" cried he, laughing; "and they would fear you if they knew you!"

The Doctor appears never to have been weary of "annotating on texts furnished by" poor Fanny Brown:—

"During a visit she paid to *Streatham*, he was inquiring of her several things that she could not answer; and, as he held her so cheap in regard to books, he began to question her concerning domestic affairs,—puddings, pies, plain work, and so forth. Miss Brown, not at all more able to give a good account of herself in these articles than in the others, began all her answers with 'Why, sir, one need not be obliged to do so,—or so,' whatever was the thing in question. When he had finished his interrogatories, and she had finished her 'need notes,' he ended the discourse with saying, 'As to your needs, my dear, they are so very many, that you would be frightened yourself if you knew half of them.'"

Characters open upon us in every page. The next we make acquaintance with are *Sophy Streatfield*, alike famous for her classical learning and her tears—the *Palmer*—Sir *Joshua's* "the" and "Offy"—Lady *Ladd*, and Mrs. *Montagu*, of whom more ere long. But first we will let Johnson describe the inmates with whom his noble charity had filled his house—a charity all

\* "Mrs. Thrale (then Mrs. Piozzi), in relating this story, in her 'Anecdotes,' adds—'Seeing, however, that the lad (whom she does not name, but calls a 'young fellow') thought him serious, and thanked him for his information, he undeceived him very gently indeed; told him the history, geography, and chronology of *Tadmor* in the Wilderness, with every incident that literature could furnish. I think, or eloquence express, from the building of *Solomon's* palace to the voyage of *Dawkins* and *Wood*."

the nobler when his aversion to the Scotch is remembered. In fact, whenever he was called upon to act, the man rose superior to the humourist:—

"Mrs. Thrale has often acquainted me that his house is quite filled and overrun with all sorts of strange creatures, whom he admits for mere charity, and because nobody else will admit them,—for his charity is unbounded,—or, rather, bounded only by his circumstances. The account he gave of the adventures and absurdities of the set, was highly diverting:—Mrs. Thrale—Pray, sir, how does Mrs. Williams like all this tribe? Dr. Johnson—Madam, she does not like them at all; but their fondness for her is not greater. She and De Mullin quarrel incessantly; but as they can both be occasionally of service to each other, and as neither of them have any other place to go to, their animosity does not force them to separate. Mrs. T.—And pray, sir, what is Mr. Macbean? Dr. J.—Madam, he is a Scotchman: he is a man of great learning, and for his learning I respect him, and I wish to serve him. He knows many languages, and knows them well; but he knows nothing of life. I advised him to write a geographical dictionary; but I have lost all hopes of his ever doing anything properly, since I found he gave as much labour to *Capua* as to *Rome*. Mr. T.—And pray who is clerk of your kitchen, sir? Dr. J.—Why, sir, I am afraid there is none; a general anarchy prevails in my kitchen, as I am told by Mr. Levat, who says it is not now what it used to be! Mrs. T.—Mr. Levat, I suppose, has the office of keeping the hospital in health? for he is an apothecary. Dr. J.—Levat, madam, is a brutal fellow, but I have a good regard for him; for his brutality is in his manners, not his mind. Mr. T.—But how do you get your dinners dressed? Dr. J.—Why De Mullin has the chief management of the kitchen; but our roasting is not magnificent, for we have no jack. Mr. T.—No jack? why, how do they manage without? Dr. J.—Small joints, I believe, they manage with a string, and larger are done at the tavern. I have some thoughts (with a profound gravity) of buying a jack, because I think a jack is some credit to a house. Mr. T.—Well, but you'll have a spit, too? Dr. J.—No, sir, no; that would be superfluous; for we shall never use it; and if a jack is seen, a spit will be presumed! Mrs. T.—But pray, sir, who is the Poll you talk of? She that you used to abet in her quarrels with Mrs. Williams, and call out, 'at her again, Poll! Never flinch, Poll?' Dr. J.—Why I took to Poll very well at first, but she won't do upon a nearer examination. Mrs. T.—How came she among you, sir? Dr. J.—Why I don't rightly remember, but we could spare her very well from us. Poll is a stupid slut; I had some hopes of her at first; but when I talked to her tightly and closely, I could make nothing of her; she was wiggly waggly, and I could never persuade her to be categorical. I wish Miss Burney would come among us; if she would only give us a week, we should furnish her with ample materials for a new scene in her next work."

Now for Mrs. Montagu: but let her be announced in due form:—

"I was looking over the 'Life of Cowley,' which the Doctor had himself given me to read, at the same time that he gave to Mrs. Thrale that of Waller. They are now printed, though they will not be published for some time. But he bade me put it away. 'Do,' cried he, 'put away that now, and prattle with us; I can't make this little Burney prattle, and I am sure she prattles well; but I shall teach her another lesson than to sit thus silent before I have done with her.' \* \* Mrs. T.—To-morrow, sir, Mrs. Montagu dines here, and then you will have talk enough. Dr. Johnson began to see-saw, with a countenance strongly expressive of inward fun, and after enjoying it some time in silence, he suddenly, and with great animation, turned to me and cried, 'Down with her, Burney!—down with her!—spare her not!—attack her, fight her, and down with her at once! You are a rising wit, and she is at the top; and when I was beginning the world, and was nothing and nobody, the joy of my life was to fire at all the established wits! and then everybody loved to halloo me on. But there is no game now; everybody would be glad to see me conquered: but then, when I was

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now, to vanquish the great ones was all the delight of my poor little dear soul! So at her, Burney—at her, and down with her!”

Our journalist, we suspect, loved the Queen of the *Bas-bleus* no better than did her Mentor at Chessington, the plain-spoken and far-sighted “Daddy Crisp.”

“She is middle-sized, very thin, and looks infirm; she has a sensible and penetrating countenance, and the air and manner of a woman accustomed to being distinguished, and of great parts. Dr. Johnson, who agrees in this, told us that a Mrs. Hervey, of his acquaintance, says, she can remember Mrs. Montagu trying for this same air and manner.”

Then comes the usual fulsome talk about ‘Evelina,’—the usual bashful agonies endured by its authoress. But we must proceed with our *ana*, singling out, next, a repartee, in which the Lady of Streatham had the best of it. The conversation ran upon compliments and reproofs—Fanny Burney declared she should sink in a minute, if Johnson “trimmed” her as he trimmed poor Fanny Brown’s bonnets and book-learning—(another time she bespoke Mr. Thrale’s spring-pond, as a place of final refuge, in case some Zoilus of the day should prove severe.) Dr. Johnson, on the other hand, expressed himself provoked by Mrs. Thrale’s extra sweetness and civility on all possible occasions:

“Mrs. T.—I remember, sir, when we were travelling in Wales, how you called me to account for my civility to the people; ‘Madam,’ you said, ‘let me have no more of this idle commendation of nothing. Why is it, that whatever you see, and whoever you see, you are to be so indiscriminately lavish of praise?’ ‘Why, I’ll tell you, sir,’ said I, ‘when I am, with you, and Mr. Thrale, and Queeny, I am obliged to be civil for four!’”

The Streatham coterie seem to have imagined that they had possessed themselves of Miss Burney—body and soul. They insisted, one by one, all, that she should write a comedy; and every one offered advice, superintendence, and help. They were anxious, too, to see her settled in life, the Blue Queen selecting for her a partner no less distinguished than Sir Joshua, and Mrs. Thrale offering, half in jest half in earnest, more than one eligible young man, “to fame unknown.” At such a time of universal adulation, the letters of the hermit of Chessington read like the warning of a friendly angel. But gossip is more amusing than good counsel; so, in preference to “Daddy Crisp’s” admonitions, we will allow “the breakfast woman” (such was Miss Burney’s pet-name at Streatham) to proceed with her own story, after her own lively fashion. The following is an outline of a celebrity of a different world and a different calibre from those usually figuring in her diaries:—

“On Thursday, I had another adventure, and one that has made me grin ever since. A gentleman inquiring for my father was asked into the parlour. The then inhabitants were only my mother and me. In entered a square old gentleman, well-wigged, formal, grave, and important. He seated himself. My mother asked if he had any message for my father? ‘No, none.’ Then he regarded me with a certain dry kind of attention for some time; after which, turning suddenly to my mother, he demanded,—‘Pray, ma’am, is this your daughter?’ ‘Yes, sir.’ ‘O! this is Evelina, is it?’ ‘No, sir,’ cried I, staring at him, and glad none of you were in the way to say Yes. ‘No?’ repeated he incredulously; ‘is not your name Evelina, ma’am?’ ‘Dear, no, sir,’ again quoth I, staring harder. ‘Ma’am,’ cried he, drily, I beg your pardon! I had understood your name was Evelina.’ And soon after, he went away. When he put down his card, who should it prove but Dr. Franklin. Was it not queer?”

We must pass the party at Sir Joshua’s, and even a more memorable visit to Mrs. Cholmondeley’s, at which the Sheridans appeared, and the manager nearly turned “little Burney’s” head, by entreating, with true managerial eager-

ness, that she would gratify him with a comedy. And yet we must give the reader an insight into the character of Mrs. Cholmondeley:—

“Mrs. Cholmondeley sat next me. She is determined, I believe, to make me like her; and she will, I believe, have full success; for she is very clever, very entertaining, and very much unlike anybody else. \* \* \* The conversation naturally fell upon Mr. Cumberland, and he was finely cut up! ‘What a man is that!’ said Mrs. Cholmondeley: ‘I cannot bear him—so querulous, so dissatisfied, so determined to like nobody and nothing but himself!’ \* \* \* After this Miss More was mentioned; and I was asked what I thought of her? ‘Don’t be formal with me; if you are, I shan’t like you!’ ‘I have no hope that you will any day!’ ‘Oh, fie! fie! but as to Miss More—I don’t like her at all; that is, I detest her! She does nothing but flatter and fawn; and then she thinks ill of nobody. Don’t you hate a person who praisings him. ‘This rejoices, this does me good!’ cried she: ‘I would have given the world to have heard that. Oh, there’s no supporting the company of professed flatterers. She gives me such doses of it, that I cannot endure her; but I always sit still and make no answer, but receive it as if I thought it my due; that is the only way to quiet her. She is really detestable. I hope, Miss Burney, you don’t think I admire all geniuses?’ The only person I flatter,” continued she, ‘is Garrick; and he likes it so much, that it pays one by the spirits it gives him. Other people that I like, I dare not flatter.’”

Murphy, too, can here only be named, not quoted; as we are impatient to get to Bright-helmstone, where originals and scenes present themselves, which bear a close resemblance to some in ‘Camilla.’ The first figure is a Dr. Delap, author of a tragedy called ‘Macaria,’ and as shy and forgetful as Dominic Sampson himself. In the following sketches, the shrewd novelist appears in all her glory:—

“He is commonly and naturally grave, silent, and absent; but when any subject is once begun upon which he has anything to say, he works it threadbare, yet hardly seems to know, when all is over, what, or whether anything has passed. He is a man, as I am told by those who know, of deep learning, but totally ignorant of life and manners. As to his person and appearance, they are much in the John-trot style. He seems inclined to be particularly civil to me; but not knowing how, according to the general forms, he has only shown his inclination by perpetual offers to help me at dinner, and repeated exclamations at my not eating more profusely.”

A sprinkling of military men, of whom much is recounted, did their circle no harm; and the Streatham-ites figure better in extract, and our readers will be amused with the following conversation-piece:—

“Wednesday, June 16.—We had, at breakfast, a scene, of its sort, the most curious I ever saw. The persons were, Sir Philip, Mr. Seward, Dr. Delap, Miss Streatham, Mrs. and Miss Thrale, and I. The discourse turning, I know not how, upon Miss Streatham, Mrs. Thrale said,—‘Ay, I made her cry once for Miss Burney as pretty as could be: but nobody does cry so pretty as the S. S. I’m sure, when she cried for Seward, I never saw her look half so lovely.’ ‘For Seward?’ cried Sir Philip; ‘did she cry for Seward? What a happy dog! I hope she’ll never cry for me, for, if she does, I won’t answer for the consequences!’ ‘Seward,’ said Mrs. Thrale, ‘had affronted Johnson, and then Johnson affronted Seward, and then the S. S. cried.’ ‘Oh,’ cried Sir Philip, ‘that I had but been here!’ ‘Nay,’ answered Mrs. Thrale, ‘you’d only have seen how like three fools three sensible persons behaved: for my part, I was quite sick of it, and of them too.’ Sir Philip.—‘But what did Seward do? was he not melted?’ Mrs. Thrale.—‘Not he; he was thinking only of his own affront, and taking fire at that.’ Mr. Seward.—‘Why, yes, I did take fire, for I went and planted my back to it.’ S. S.—‘And Mrs. Thrale kept stuffing me with toast and water.’ Sir Philip.—‘But what did Seward do with himself? Was not he in ecstasy? What did he do or say?’ Mr. Seward.—

‘Oh, I said pho, pho, don’t let’s have any more of this,—it’s making it of too much consequence: no more piping, pray.’ Sir Philip.—‘Well, I have heard so much of these tears, that I would give the universe to have a sight of them.’ Mrs. Thrale.—‘Well, she shall cry again if you like it.’ S. S.—‘No, pray, Mrs. Thrale.’ Sir Philip.—‘Oh, pray do! pray let me see a little of it.’ Mrs. Thrale.—‘Yes, do cry a little, Sophy [in a wheedling voice], pray do! Consider, now, you are going to-day, and it’s very hard if you won’t cry a little: indeed, S. S., you ought to cry.’ Now for the wonder of wonders. When Mrs. Thrale, in a coaxing voice, suited to a nurse soothing a baby, had ran on for some time,—while all the rest of us, in laughter, joined in the request,—two crystal tears came into the soft eyes of the S. S., and rolled gently down her cheeks! Such a sight I never saw before, nor could I have believed. She offered not to conceal or dissipate them: on the contrary, she really contrived to have them seen by everybody. She looked, indeed, uncommonly handsome; for her pretty face was not, like Chloe’s, blubbered; it was smooth and elegant, and neither her features nor complexion were at all ruffled; nay, indeed, she was smiling all the time. ‘Look, look,’ cried Mrs. Thrale, ‘see if the tears are not come already.’ Loud and rude bursts of laughter broke from us all at once. How, indeed, could they be restrained? Yet we all stared, and looked and relooked again and again, twenty times, ere we could believe our eyes. Sir Philip, I thought, would have died in convulsions; for his laughter and his politeness, struggling furiously with one another, made him almost black in the face. Mr. Seward looked half vexed that her crying for him was so much lowered in its flattery, yet grinned incessantly; Miss Thrale laughed as much as contempt would allow her; but Dr. Delap seemed petrified with astonishment. When our mirth had abated, Sir Philip, colouring violently with his efforts to speak, said,—‘I thank you, ma’am, I’m much obliged to you.’ But I really believe he spoke without knowing what he was saying. ‘What a wonderful command,’ said Dr. Delap, very gravely, ‘that lady must have over herself!’ She now took out a handkerchief, and wiped her eyes. ‘Sir Philip,’ cried Mr. Seward, ‘how can you suffer her to dry her own eyes!—you, who sit next her?’ ‘I dare not dry them for her,’ answered he, ‘because I am not the right man.’ ‘But if I sat next her,’ returned he, ‘she should not dry them herself.’ ‘I wish,’ cried Dr. Delap, ‘I had a bottle to put them in; ’tis a thousand pities they should be wasted.’ ‘There, now,’ said Mrs. Thrale, ‘she looks for all the world as if nothing had happened; for, you know, nothing has happened!’ ‘Would you cry, Miss Burney,’ said Sir Philip, ‘if we asked you?’ ‘Oh,’ cried Mrs. Thrale, ‘I would not do thus by Miss Burney for ten worlds! I dare say she would never speak to me again. I should think she’d be more likely to walk out of my house than to cry because I bid her.’ ‘I don’t know how that is,’ cried Sir Philip; ‘but I’m sure she’s gentle enough.’ ‘She can cry, I doubt not,’ said Mr. Seward, ‘on any proper occasion.’ ‘But I must know,’ said I, ‘what for.’ I did not say this loud enough for the S. S. to hear me; but if I had, she would not have taken it for the reflection it meant. She seemed the whole time, totally insensible to the numerous strange and, indeed, impertinent speeches which were made, and to be very well satisfied that she was only manifesting a tenderness of disposition, that increased her beauty of countenance. At least, I can put no other construction upon her conduct, which was, without exception, the strangest I ever saw. Without any pretence of affliction,—to weep merely because she was bid, though bid in a manner to forbid any one else,—to be in good spirits all the time,—to see the whole company expiring of laughter at her tears, without being at all offended,—and, at last, to dry them up, and go on with the same sort of conversation she held before they started! What Sir Philip or Mr. Seward privately thought of this incident I know not yet; but Dr. Delap said,—‘Yes, she has pretty blue eyes,—very pretty indeed; she’s quite a wonderful miss. If it had not been for that little gush, I don’t know what would have become of me. It was very good-natured of her, really, for she charms and uncharms in a moment; she is a bane and an antidote at the same time.’ Then, after considering it more deeply,—I

declare," he said, "I was never so much surprised in my life! I should as soon have expected that the dew would fall from heaven because Mrs. Thrale called for it, as that Miss What-d'ye-call-her would have cried just because she was asked. But the thing is—did she cry? I declare I don't believe it. Yet I think, at this moment, I saw it,—only I know it could not be: something of a mist, I suppose, was before my eyes."

We must here pause; but there remain materials for another notice, quite as amusing as the two bespoken tears of S. S.

*Memoirs of Extraordinary Popular Delusions.*  
By Charles Mackay. Vol. III. Bentley.

THE present publication reminds us, that in our notice of the former volumes of Mr. Mackay's work we expressed our intention to say a few words, when occasion offered, on what we consider to be the early history of Witchcraft. We shall now redeem our promise; reserving the subjects more immediately brought under consideration, in the present volume,—the Alchemists—Fortune-tellers—and Magnetizers—for a future opportunity.

Delusions which have lost their power sink rapidly into contempt, and become the objects of jest and ridicule. We may compare them to some barbarous idol preserved in a museum, which, by its distorted shape and grotesque attitude, excites the laughter of all spectators, and severely taxes their credulity to believe that such a monster could ever have been worshipped as a god. Occasional reports of, or references to, such records of folly as the 'Tryals of Witches,' are received in the present day with a mixture of sceptical astonishment and supercilious mirth, the usual fate of exploded follies. But to estimate the influence of the dethroned idol and the abandoned opinion, we must restore to them their accessories and their associations; victims must again bleed upon the altars, priests chaunt the ritual of sanguinary sacrifice, and eager crowds applaud every act of horror in direct proportion to its atrocity. The long array of more than three thousand persons, including the learned and the beautiful, the old and the young, the noble and the peasant, male and female, who perished in England and Scotland, by stake or gibbet, for the pretended crime of witchcraft, during the course of a single century, must be present to our imagination; we must add to these the tortures inflicted by brutal ignorance without form of law, and the persecutions excited by revengeful malice, ere we can fully comprehend the destructive agency of absurdity and the fearful power of nonsense.

It has been usual to ascribe the great outburst of fanaticism against witchcraft, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, to the effect produced by the representations of the evil principle in the monkish legends; but the roots of the delusion were far deeper and wider; the folly belongs to the pathology of human nature, and is found in every age and amongst every race included in the wide family of man. The symptoms of the disease are everywhere to be recognized, though insuperable difficulties seem to beset the investigation of its origin.

Witchcraft may be defined to be, "supernatural, or demoniac agency exercised under the direction and control of human beings." In the rudest states of society we generally find it associated with sickness, especially if the disease be of an unusual type or extraordinary character; the devil, or some one of his subordinate agents is blamed for inflicting evils of which the cause is not immediately apparent: the "Mother of sore throats" bore the blame of the influenza in Syria; the dreadful Siva appeared to the Hindoos the author of cholera, and the Arabs ascribe epileptic fits to the direct agency of Beelzebub.

Hence, magic is the medicinal art of ignorance; the savage, regarding sickness as an intrusive demon, tries to induce him to withdraw by prayers, or to expel him by incantations. If he succeeds, his belief is established for ever; if not, he ascribes his failure to a want of faith in himself, or of skill in the exorcist. Where science is absent, superstition takes her place, and is far more ready, and often far more satisfactory to the bulk of mankind in solving doubts and removing difficulties.

When once the opinion, that certain spells and charms could remove disease had gained a hold on the mind, it was easy to persuade men that the same power which had afforded them relief could renew their sufferings. "I wot," said the King of Moab in his message to Balaam, "that he whom thou blestest is blessed, and he whom thou cursest is cursed." Such a belief was sure to be encouraged by the reputed wizards and witches; it invested them with mastery over their fellows, for none dared to refuse their behests, through fear of provoking their vengeance. There can be little doubt that such power was fearfully abused; and hence, those who believe that witchcraft was in all cases a delusion, still defend the propriety of the Mosaic law, "Thou shalt not suffer a witch\* to live."

The belief in the possibility of a communication between human beings and supernatural agencies, may be ascribed to a universal tradition of the earlier ages of the world; but no doubt it was everywhere strengthened by the sights and sounds which baffle the limited intelligence of savages to explain. "Airy tongues that syllable men's names" are to be heard in every grove; dim and shadowy objects, which require no great effort of imagination to invest them with the outlines of form, are presented to us in the vapoury atmosphere of our lakes and valleys; even to the strongest minds they have often the effect of temporary realities. The belief that such beings have been once heard or seen sharpens the perception, and gives brighter colours to the object. A faint shadow becomes a palpable ghost to the superstitious rustic who passes a churchyard after night-fall; the remembrance of a nursery tale often fills the dark void with spectral illusions; and the effect of habit in combining irregular elements into definite shape, is known to everybody who has amused himself in looking for pictures in the fire.

The desire of connecting ourselves with beings holding a higher rank than ourselves in the scale of creation and intelligence,—the belief that such a desire may be gratified, and the ambition to raise ourselves by such means above the visible world, may exercise a beneficent influence on the spirit. Jacob's dream may seem to be realized, and while our aspirations ascend the ladder, fixed between earth and heaven, celestial agencies may be descending upon the heart. Unfortunately, this belief leads necessarily to the supposition, that there may be an intercourse with the powers of evil as well as the powers of good; those who saw "gods descend" from "the burning skies," saw also "fiends infernal rise" from the "rending earth." In the monkish legends we invariably find, that the saints most favoured by the visitations of angels, were also the most exposed to the personal temptations of Satan and his imps.

External circumstances, national character, and individual peculiarities had great influence in determining whether the beneficent, or the gloomy view of supernatural communications should predominate. We have no account of witchcraft among the Jews, save in periods of national delinquency and suffering; Saul's persecution of witches did not begin until the pros-

\* Some commentators assert, that the word rendered "witch" should be translated "poisoner," and deny that the Jews had any notions of demoniac agency before their captivity in Babylon.

perity of his reign was at an end. We may remark, that the Jews made the agency of demons more direct and local than any other of the ancient nations. Hence, some Rabbinical commentators explain the surprise of the Witch of Endor at the apparent success of her own spells; she intended that her familiar should assume the shape of Samuel, but when she saw the Prophet himself appear, she exclaimed with horror, "I saw gods ascending out of the earth." The local influence of good and evil spirits became a prominent part of the Jewish belief, when the Mosaic doctrines became corrupted by tradition; exorcism was followed as a regular trade, and thus a large class became interested in ascribing every inexplicable event to demoniac influence. "He casteth out devils by Beelzebub, the prince of the devils," was the ready excuse of the sorcerers when their delusive attempts were overthrown by unquestionable miracles.

The very limited accounts of witchcraft in the Bible, do not admit of our tracing with minuteness the nature of the Jewish belief in witchcraft and demoniac agency, but in the classic records of Greece we find numerous delineations of sorcerers and their habits, united with descriptions of practices connected with such delusions, which have descended to our own age. In the flourishing times of the Greek republics, and in the better part of the heroic ages, supernatural interferences were ascribed to the gods: witchcraft was only practised by the Thessalians, or, at most, it had only credit with those classes which in every age and country afford a harvest to fortune-tellers and conjurers. The passions of love and jealousy sought aid from unlawful arts to obtain a desired object, or to remove a hated rival. One means of destruction was, to prepare waxen figures in the resemblance of the person destined to be removed, and pierce them through with needles. The witches not unfrequently attained their object, for when these images were exposed, the dread of those who believed themselves aimed at, produced fatal effects.

It was not, however, until Paganism began to decline, and the imaginative mythology of Greece degenerated into a mere muster-roll of names, that sorcery and witchcraft acquired extensive influence. The craving desire to penetrate into futurity, which had previously been gratified by the oracles, was left without any resource but magic. The witch multiplied her spells, and with an instinctive knowledge, that she lived in an incredulous age, threw around them every circumstance of horror which was likely to daunt the too curious inquirer. To this period belongs Lucan's description of Erichtho—

New mischief she, new monsters durst explore,  
And dealt in horrors never known before.  
From towns and hospitable roofs she flies,  
And every dwelling of mankind defies;  
Through unfrequented deserts lonely roams,  
Drives out the dead, and dwells within their tombs,  
Spite of all laws which heaven or Nature know,  
The rule of Gods above or men below.

The poet goes on to describe the preparations for her disgusting laboratory. Corpses torn from the grave, withering relics of felons rescued from the gibbet or snatched from the wolf and raven, new-born infants stolen from the side of the mother, and quivering tongues wrenched from the expiring before the last gasp of parting life; such, and even worse, appear to have been the concomitants of witchcraft in the ages of expiring Polytheism. The interval of transition from one creed to another appears to be the 'vantage-ground of superstition; when religion is no longer at hand to solve difficulties by a reference to angels, deities or saints, ignorance finds a ready resource in the devil.

In the writings of the early fathers, we find magic always associated with paganism; later writers connect it with the heresies supposed to

have arisen in the middle ages, and any instance in modern times, in Arc, and a mere quires no, however Orlean, the malice against the punished cruelty to forms a the persons the indi the ointm on broom Satan, it the horro the luxury attended of tortur to confes though their in judicial their po which c In 14 fish Jar ing him edict ap son to before scarcely wizards thousand laws so vest of would be the dev sanction with an euected they cu The c through land, a former burned the litt euected Abc craft, vulgar by lea sum from l entered from super share heath Christ demo Satan more selves hope agenc and men buffe Th most the s why have deno Sado the



have arisen from heathen traditions; but until the middle of the fifteenth century we do not find any instance, save one, of a trial for witchcraft in modern Europe. The exception is Joan of Arc, and in her case the accusation was so clearly a mere pretext for judicial murder, that it requires no further notice. There was an effect, however, the result of the murder of the Maid of Orleans, which has been unnoticed; it taught the malicious a means for raising a popular cry against the objects of their hatred, and it furnished persecutors with plausible excuses for cruelty to their victims. Accordingly, witchcraft forms a leading article in the allegations against the persons accused of heresy at Arras, in 1459; the indictment sets forth, with great precision, the ointment which enabled the accused to ride on broomsticks through the air, the price which Satan, its compounder, exacted for his ointment, the horrible festivities of a witch's sabbath, and the luxuries provided for those by whom it was attended. The unfortunate wretches, by threats of torture and promises of pardon, were induced to confess these and other impossible crimes, but though they retracted at the stake, and though their innocence was subsequently established by judicial investigation, a dread of witches and their power was diffused amongst the populace, which could not be eradicated.

In 1484, Innocent VIII., who, like the English James I., was a learned blockhead, imagining himself a Solomon, issued the first Christian edict against witchcraft. He bequeathed a lesson to posterity which should not be neglected; before his bull appeared, witchcraft was a crime scarcely known by name; in a very few years, wizards and witches might be counted by the thousand in every country in Christendom. Penal laws sowed the seed and reaped a plentiful harvest of crime. Alexander VI., though one would have thought Borgia on better terms with the devil, renewed the edict; Leo X. added his sanction, and Adrian VI. re-issued the bulls, with an exhortation to have them diligently executed. These laws were doubly operative, for they created as well as punished their victims. The delusion spread with amazing rapidity through Italy, Germany, France, and Switzerland, as mentioned in our notice of Mr. Mackay's former volumes. Five hundred persons were burned at Geneva within three months; and, in the little diocese of Como, a thousand were executed in one year.

About this time, the vague notions of witchcraft, hitherto preserved in the traditions of the vulgar, were formed into a complete system by learned doctors and eminent divines. The sum of the theory was, that the fiends ejected from heaven after the rebellion of Lucifer, had entered into a conspiracy to withdraw mankind from the worship of Jehovah; that by their supernatural powers, and especially by their share of fore-knowledge, they had seduced the heathen nations, but that on the coming of Christ, the oracles had been silenced, and the demons driven from their abode. Since that time Satan and his emissaries had been forced to use more secrecy and caution; they had availed themselves of the aid of sorcerers and witches, in the hope of recovering their lost empire. Diabolical agency had been employed to tempt holy saints and anchorites; and hence it was inferred, that men of true piety were the most exposed to the buffetings of Satan, and the malice of witches.

The belief that the ministers of Satan were most hostile to those who were pre-eminent in the service of God, has been probably the cause why such men as Luther, Knox, and Wesley have contended for the existence of witches, and denounced all who doubted on the subject as Sadducees and Atheists. For the same reason, the Puritans of New England indulged in the

witch-mania to an excess almost incredible; they could not believe themselves the elect until they had the reality of their privileges confirmed by the testimony of the enemy of souls.

The witch-mania in England is popularly ascribed to the example of James I.; but individual cases of trial for witchcraft occur before it was prohibited by any penal statute. Neither was James the author of the first law on the subject. Statutes against witchcraft were passed in 1541, and Elizabeth, as shown before, (No. 734) was induced to pass another law on the subject by the exhortations from the pulpit of Bishop Jewel; and Archbishop Cramer, in 1549, inserted the following in his articles of visitation:—

"Item, you shall enquire whether you know of any that use charms, sorcery, enchantments, witchcraft, soothsaying, or any like craft invented by the devil."

No modern historian of demonology and its delusions seems to have been aware of the discussions on this subject in the reign of Elizabeth, when Romanism, Protestantism, and Puritanism, all furnished their contingent of parties possessed, and of exorcists to dispossess them. Common sense found a strenuous advocate in Dr. Samuel Harsnett, chaplain to Archbishop Bancroft, and afterwards Bishop of York. He published a "Declaration of Impostors," in which he disproved and ridiculed these follies with equal wit and freedom. As the work is rare, we shall give a short extract from it, which will give some notion of its humorous style of argument:—

"These things are raked together out of old doating Heathen historiographers, wizzardizing augurs, imposturizing soothsayers, dreaming poets, chimerical concerters, and coiners of fables." Out of these is shaped us the true idea of a witch, an old weather-beaten crone, having her chin and knees meeting for age, leaning on a staff, hollow-eyed, untoothed, furrowed on her face, having her lips trembling with the palsy, going mumbling on the streets; one that hath forgotten her *Pater Noster*, and yet hath a shrewd tongue to call a *drab* a *drab*. If she hath learned of an old wife in a chimney-end *Pax Max Pax* for a spell, or can say Sir John Grantham's curse for the miller's eels,\* "All ye that have stolen the miller's eels *laudate Dominum de Cælo* (praise the Lord of eels); all they that have consented thereto *Benedicamus Domino* (let us bless the Lord);" why then beware, look about you, my neighbours. If any of you have a sheep sick of the giddies, or a hog of the mumps, or a horse of the staggers, or a knavish boy of the school, or an idle girl of the wheel, or a young drab of the sullens, and hath not fat enough for her porridge, or butter enough for her bread, and she hath a little help of the epilepsy or cramp to teach her to roll her eyes, wry her mouth, gnash her teeth, startle with her body, hold her hands and arms stiff,—and then if 'an old mother Nobs' hath by chance called her 'idle young housewife,' or hid the Devil scratch her, then no doubt but mother Nobs is a witch, and the young girl is owl-blasted, bewitched, overlooked, and forespoken. They that have their brains baited and their fancies distempered with the imaginations and apprehensions of witches, conjurors and fairies, and all that lymphatical chimæra, I find to be marshalled in one of these five ranks; children, fools, women, cowards, sick or black melancholick discomposed wits."

Dr. Harsnett has very ably traced the origin of the popular mania on the subject. Just at the time of the Reformation, the doctrine of demoniacal possession was revived by the Jesuits, to the great profit of exorcists; and several of the reformed clergy, either through knavery or folly, sanctioned similar juggling. The fathers of the English church, however, so far discountenanced the delusion, as to subject, by the seventy-second canon, to the penalty of imposture, any clergyman who should undertake to use prayers for casting out devils *without a special licence from his diocese*. Bishop Hutchinson

\* The story to which he alludes is, that Sir J. Grantham, being asked for a spell by an ignorant miller, taught him some Latin prayers, which, as the text shows, were very different from the curse solicited.

declares that only one such licence was ever granted.

The causes assigned for possession will startle the reader by their absurdity. Thyraeus relates that the devil entered into one maiden because "she was in great love with a young man;" into another, because "she endeavoured to make herself resemble the picture of Venus;" into a third, "for uttering sharp words;" and into a fourth, "because she devoured greedily the leaf of a lettuce, without making the sign of the cross, not perceiving that the devil, in the shape of a caterpillar, was clinging to the lower part of the leaf." But the English exorcist, John Darrel, whose impostures were detected by Dr. Harsnett, surpassed the learned Jesuit in invention. Catherine Wright was possessed with a devil, sent into her by Mary Roper, to whom "she had told an untruth." She was exorcised, but the devil came again in the shape of a young man, made proposals of marriage, and gave her a cake, which, when she had eaten, she was repossessed. William Somers had the devil sent unto him by an old woman of Worcester, because he refused "to give her a hat-band which she much coveted." Thomas Darling's case is still more extraordinary; he met Alice Goodridge in a coppice, and insulted her by contumelious noises, upon which she pronounced this charm,—

Gip with a mischief and sound with a bell,  
I will go to heaven and thou shalt go to hell,

whereupon her familiar spirit entered into him. "The mother of mischief," says an Eastern proverb, "is not bigger than a midge's egg." John Darrel, the first protestant exorcist, was the true originator, not of witchcraft, indeed, but of the *witch-mania*, which began in the reign of Elizabeth, and not, as is usually supposed, in that of her successor. The bishops generally discountenanced this impostor, but his cause was supported by the puritanical party, who accused the prelates of Sadduceism, for denying the modern instances of demoniacal possession. In the discussions which arose on this subject, the stories of devils sent into persons by witches were severely criticized; this led to a debate on witchcraft itself, which speedily passed from the press to the pulpit, and from the pulpit to the domestic circle, until a terror of witchcraft was diffused through the land, while all who attempted to check the panic were denounced as infidels and atheists.

Darrel, as we have said, was favoured by the Puritans; and he proclaimed that devils could not be ejected by the "stinted prayers in a book," and that demoniac possession was sent as a punishment for the fashionable sins of the day. He exhibited William Somers, whom he had hired to counterfeit the demoniac at Nottingham, and made the devil, by whom he was possessed, act by signs before the congregation, all the crying sins of the town, which Darrel explained to the people. The minister of the parish preached a sermon on the subject, and one of the poets of the town chronicled the event in a ballad, from which we quote a specimen:—

But when that Mr. Darrel came,  
The devil was vexed with the same.  
His limbs he rack'd, he rent, he tore,  
Far worse than he did before;  
He played the antic there in scorn,  
And flouted men in making horns;  
And after that he did bewray  
How men at cards and dice do play.  
He showed the manner of our fardingales,  
Our busks and periwigs, masks and vales;  
And by the clapping of his hands  
He show'd the starching of our bands.

William Somers was a very convenient assistant to Darrel; he was exorcised and repossessed several times; at length the trick began to grow stale, and the impostor found it expedient to procure a new actor. Somers had a sister, Mrs. Mary Cowper, who had been his constant com-

panion, and was, therefore, trained to the performance. She now began to fall into fits, and talk nonsense, and these were sufficient proofs of demoniacal possession. She was accordingly brought before the public, and her devil was commanded to name the person who had sent him into the woman. The victim selected was Mrs. Alice Freeman, a woman old, ugly, and poor, evidence sufficient to prove her a witch, but unfortunately for the conspirators, she was sister to an alderman, who was by no means anxious for the honour of having a witch in the family. Freeman headed the sceptics of Nottingham; the minister of the parish was the leader of the believers; the dispute of possession and no-possession was mixed up with an old quarrel between the church and the corporation; one half of the towns-people could scarcely sleep in their beds for fear of the devil and his imps, the others were scarcely less frightened from apprehension of being accused by Darrel. Seventeen persons were already committed to the castle on the charge of witchcraft, and the result of their trials was eagerly expected with hope on one side and fear on the other.

Fortunately the Judge of Assize was Sir Edmund Anderson, Chief Justice of the Common Pleas. In the excited state of the public mind he refused to put the witches on their trial; but he privately examined the evidence, and soon discovered that Darrel's proceedings required close investigation. On his return to London, he laid the matter before the High Commission Court, and for once in the course of its existence, that tribunal was engaged in rescuing the innocent from oppression. Catherine Gray, Mary Cowper, William Somers, and the boy of Burton confessed that they had counterfeited possession; Darrel was convicted of imposture, degraded, and sentenced to a long imprisonment.

Yet so far was this from allaying the controversy, that it raged fiercer than ever; the prelates were accused of partiality, their puritanical opponents circulated terrific tales of the increase of witchcraft and possession, insinuating that Satan was about to make England a province of Pandemonium, after having secured the patronage of the heads of the church. On the other hand, the Episcopal party advanced farther and farther in scepticism; Dr. Harnett classed the belief in exorcism, demoniac possession, sorcery, and witchcraft with the delusions of Popery, and Archbishop Bancroft censured the preachers who encouraged the popular delusion from the pulpit. Witchcraft, in fact, became the Shibboleth of religious party, and for some years was one of the leading points of difference between the church and dissent.

The clamour against witches being discounted by the government, the panic gradually subsided; there was no trial for sorcery, after the exposure of Darrel's impostures, during the remainder of Elizabeth's reign. The circumstances under which the delusion was revived, have been somewhat misrepresented by most historians of demonology, and more blame has been thrown on James I. than he is justly entitled to bear. But the investigation of this subject would open a new field of inquiry, and we shall therefore rest content with referring the curious to Mr. Mackay's volume, who from this period treats the subject more satisfactorily. It was mainly owing to the firmness of Elizabeth's bishops, that a form of exorcism was not added to the Anglican liturgy, where it would have been a meet companion to the service of touching for the king's evil: the Puritans were eager for its introduction. Unfortunately, in the next reign, the prelates did not exhibit the same firmness in opposing royal prejudice, which they had evinced in resisting popular passion.

*Remarks on Church Architecture, with Illustrations.* By the Rev. J. L. Petit. 2 vols. Burns.

THESE unassuming volumes are of greater interest and value than appears on the surface. They contain the brief but valuable notes of an intelligent and highly cultivated man, made during a tour through a great part of France, the north of Italy, Germany and Switzerland, on churches and church architecture, of all styles and dates, and of every kind, from the cathedral to the parish church and wayside chapel; and many examples have been added from our own country. The illustrations are numerous—mere sketches, and very roughly finished, but sufficient for their intended purpose, which is rather to show the composition, outline, and general proportions of the examples adduced, than to explain their details; and the accompanying descriptions are of a like character, but valuable for the just and critical appreciation of architectural beauty.

This work has a practical and useful aim, and will materially assist our architects in considering how best to meet the difficulties of modern church building. Mr. Petit does not inveigh against modern architects after the fashion of our schoolists in antiquities and church architecture: he suggests how they may do better—examines carefully those proportions and characteristic features in the old ecclesiastical buildings which are most available and can be most advantageously combined with our present church arrangements and limited funds. The following remarks on the present absurd practice of minutely copying, and bringing forward authorities for details of a style, when its spirit and proportions cannot even be attempted, are most judicious:—

"In the present day, the architect selects for imitation this beautiful style [the Early English,] on account of its simplicity. Undoubtedly the cathedral at Salisbury does, from the consummate art of this designer, suggest the idea of extreme simplicity; but many who admire it for this excellence will, when they begin to imitate, be very liable to fall into vices from which it is totally free, those of poverty and meagreness. The Early English admits of, nay requires, beauties of a very complicated nature; many of them, both as regards contrivance and execution, far beyond the reach of the builder who adopts it as a convenient style for a plain village church. Its clustering and often detached shafts; its capitals of the most exquisite foliage; the deep hollows of its mouldings; its peculiar toothed ornament, demanding the most delicate and elaborate workmanship; its rich bands and cornices; and, above all, its bold and accurately turned vaultings, mark it as belonging rather to the splendid cathedral or costly chapel, than to the humble parish church. It is not because its ornaments are unobtrusive, that we are to think it allows any deficiency of ornament: and it should also be remembered, that the plainer the work, the more necessary it is to compensate for such plainness by a perfect accuracy of proportion, and an exact disposition of every component part."

Again,—

"The architect who adopts the Early Complete Gothic, if he intends, not merely to copy its details, but to preserve its true character, will, perhaps, find himself much more limited than he expects both as to plan and outline. His gables ought to be of a certain pitch, perhaps that of an equilateral triangle is the best; although a front with a horizontal capping might be used without impropriety. His vaultings which are nearly indispensable, should be well turned; and these will involve the necessity of high walls, and deep and bold buttresses. It will be of consequence to attend carefully to the proportions, both as regards the length, breadth, and height of the whole building, and also the relation to each other of the several parts, the nave, transepts, and chancel. \* \* But if the architect is prevented by the exigencies of his building from preserving those graceful proportions which the Early Complete Gothic peremptorily demands, he ought to dismiss it at once: without these

it is nothing; and the very beauty of its details will only serve to place in a stronger light the deformity of the whole. \* \* The Early Complete Gothic, whether in the form of advanced Early English, or Geometrical Decorated, should be adopted by no architect who has not a full command of means, not only as regards expense, but also the choice of form, plan, and even situation. A building of this style, to speak generally, requires vaulting, deep and bold buttresses, and windows and elevations of the nicest design. The adoption of Early English, on the score of economy, I will contend, against general practice, to be wrong in principle; that it has already given rise to a class of very mean and meagre buildings, it is impossible to deny. The square tower, with battlements and pinnacles, whatever be the form of the latter, or of the belfry-windows, can scarcely be considered appropriate in this style. The Flowing Decorated, if worked in its purity, requires nearly the same nicety, and would probably be found very expensive. But all its beauties, not excepting even its tracery, may be retained in the Perpendicular style, which allows the greatest possible latitude to the architect both in outline and detail. And it is manifest, that by adopting a style at the latest period in which it flourished without debasement, we are taking the best ground; we have the free range of all that has been done, while the wide field of improvement is spread before us. We are restrained in neither direction. It is a self-evident truth, that in the advancement of an art, the later stages command and comprehend all the earlier; and this is most eminently the case with architecture. Let us take, for instance, the late Perpendicular. This admits the flat wooden roof, the obtuse gable, the four-centred arch, the square-headed window with foliated lights, and the fan-vaulting. It allows all these; but does it restrict us to their use? Far from it."

There is much in these observations which is excellent, but we cannot agree in their exclusive recommendation of the Perpendicular style for modern uses. The Perpendicular style admits, indeed, of a greater latitude and freedom of forms, but it has not the severe beauties of the preceding styles, and unless we include in this freedom, the licence to copy imperfect or unfinished examples, it will be found that perfection in this style is as difficult to attain, and as costly, as in any other. Mr. Petit's remarks on position and the surrounding accompaniments of buildings, are equally judicious. We observe, indeed, that his sketches are generally taken from points of view favourable to picturesque composition. Of Gothic architecture in towns, Mr. Petit justly remarks:—

"Besides the proportions of the structure itself, it is clear that our ancestors attended to its position, and the objects surrounding and likely to surround it. When Gothic churches were built, the houses also were in some style which harmonized with them. In most old towns we find numbers of Gothic doors, windows, and other details, scattered about, belonging to private dwellings; as in York, Chester, Glastonbury, Exeter, Rouen, Dijon, Avignon, Cologne, and almost every town in Holland and Belgium. The monastic buildings attached to churches were of a similar style, and these, in all probability, did not greatly differ from other houses of the same standard; while those of smaller consequence, though rude in their materials and construction, still harmonized with the richest Gothic. Is this the case with our flat fronts, square windows, low roofs, and horizontal parapets? Would not the oldest and most perfect Gothic edifice, if it ranged in a line with these, appear to be out of character?"

We have daily experience of the truth of these remarks. The chief beauties of Gothic architecture, the minute subdivision, with the general effect in combination of these many parts, —the numerous projections, buttresses, and gables, which, by their repetition, add to the apparent size of buildings, in appropriate situations—lose all their effect when the buildings are surrounded with the plain cubic masses of our town streets. Gothic architecture should not be attempted in towns, unless on a gigantic scale. Extreme plainness and simplicity in such

situation repose of contrast of the churches excellent

Mr. P. strictly person knows to of design pense for "style," or less tion of solidi. class can racy, by the who foot being. Therefore tion is a matter c mine th last few of them very mu designed great at otherwis ing Soci sions of be esser is calle price ad work, f pocket recom Church "If a as a buil number necessar safety; taste and dedicate case it i spect th beauty. of indit Still, on this, "It is not be and sim proposi have a disting seems t tect, as ciples c If he w him stu referen possibl attaine decorat We consid admir work These respect detail in ou simpli tion i detach while we bu west centr and i



situations has the best effect; the breadth and repose of design thus obtained, affords the best contrast to the numerous doors and windows of the surrounding houses. Some of Wren's churches and towers in the city are in this way excellent examples.

Mr. Petit lays great stress on the necessity of strictly attending to proportion. To this most persons will agree; but the practical architect knows too well that proportion is the costly part of design. A small sum added to a given expense for a building, will go a great way in "style," when that is understood to mean more or less enrichment in detail; but good proportion often demands increased dimension and solidity. The expense of buildings of the same class can be estimated with considerable accuracy, by simply calculating the cubic contents of the whole mass, the price of an average cubic foot being known to the experienced surveyor. Therefore, when the funds are limited, proportion is not a question of beauty in design, but a matter of economy and calculation. If we examine the numerous churches built within the last few years, we shall find that the proportions of them all, for congregations of like number, are very much the same—although they have been designed by many different persons, and with great attempts at diversity. This cannot be otherwise: from the rules of the Church Building Societies, fixing the distribution and dimensions of the pews and free seats, the plans must be essentially alike. The proportions, and what is called the style, generally, depend on the price allowed per sitting; it is all contract work, from architect to hodman—a breeches-pocket question, and not a question of art. We recommend the following few words, which have reference to this subject, to the consideration of Church Building Commissions and Committees:

"If a church be considered in no other light than as a building erected for the reception of a certain number of persons assembled in worship, no more is necessary than to give sufficient space, and to secure safety; all beyond this may be referred to mere taste and fancy. But if it be a building solemnly dedicated and consecrated to the Almighty, in this case it is our duty to provide that it be in every respect the best of which circumstances will admit; its beauty, propriety, and solemnity cease to be matters of indifference."

Still, Mr. Petit gives some excellent advice on this, as on most other subjects:—

"It must frequently happen that the funds will not be adequate for anything beyond the plainest and simplest building. Yet, to resume my leading proposition, it ought to be the best in our power; to have a certain dignity of appearance which shall distinguish it above all surrounding objects: and this seems to be the real field for the genius of an architect, as he cannot, in such a case, disguise false principles or bad proportions by redundancy of ornament. If he would attack the main difficulties of his art, let him study to produce a perfect model, with but little reference to any details of style, and at the least possible expense consistent with durability: having attained this, he will easily learn to add as much decoration as he pleases."

We particularly recommend to the attentive consideration of our church architects the admirable remarks and examples given in this work on Romanesque and Italian architecture. These buildings are excellent studies, in many respects well suited to our present use; and the details can be easily and appropriately executed in our common brick. The designs combine simplicity and breadth, with fine composition in the masses and outline. The graceful detached Campanile is surely more beautiful, while it is not more expensive, than the towers we build imbedded in the middle of the broad west fronts of Gothic churches: the dome, too, or central lantern, equally beautiful on the outside and in the interior, is appropriate to this style,

is easy of execution, and well adapted for town churches. After describing many examples, Mr. Petit suggests—

"Might not a style be matured upon the suggestions thrown out to us by these old buildings of Italy, France, and Germany?—a style admitting of great simplicity in point of workmanship, and at the same time capable of the most varied and beautiful combinations; that could be grounded and advanced upon clear and definite rules, and freed from every sort of inconsistency; that would harmonize with our modern domestic buildings, and yet be sufficiently distinct from them to mark the high purpose to which the fabric is dedicated? Might it not enable us to adopt with advantage forms of great convenience, but ill suited either to Italian or Gothic?"

Again,—

"If, from the study of the German Romanesque, and the simpler specimens of Italian, a pure round-arched style could be formed, it might, perhaps, be made to suit many kinds of arrangement to which no other is exactly adapted. To mature such a style, however, would require much skill and judgment: few buildings, if any, exist which could be taken as models without alteration, but many might furnish valuable hints. The architect should lean rather towards Italian than Norman, omitting, at the same time, many characteristics of the former. The external character might in great measure be formed from both German and Lombard buildings; the internal, chiefly from the former."

In the second volume are some good remarks on repairs and alterations. We cannot, however commend the author's proposal, to enlarge an old church, by lengthening the chancel, and adding aisles to it. It certainly would have some practical advantage, and enable a greater portion of the congregation to see the preacher; but for architectural effect, the interior is not improved, while on the outside the composition is unpleasing, and the usual arrangement seems to be reversed, as if the tower stood at the end of a west chancel.

The arrangement of this work would have been improved by separating the plates into one volume, reserving the other for the letter-press, as in Mr. Hope's work on Architecture: the notes, which at present seem discursive and wanting in method, would then have assumed a more compact and connected form. These, however, are minor objections, and no way affect the real value of the work, which we can recommend as a most useful addition to the library of the student or lover of architecture.

*The Second Book of the Travels of Nicander Nucius.* Edited from the original Greek MSS. in the Bodleian Library, with an English Translation, by the Rev. J. A. Cramer, D.D. Printed for the Camden Society.

This fragment contains the observations on England made by Nicander during a short visit to this country, towards the close of the reign of Henry VIII. The author was a native of Coryra; misfortunes compelled him to remove to Venice, where he was taken into the service of the learned Gerard Voltwick, who chanced to be passing through that city as ambassador to the Sultan Solymn, from the Emperor Charles V. Nicander found his countrymen, the Greeks of Constantinople, very ignorant of every thing relating to Western Europe, and he promised, on his return, to send them correct information respecting those unknown regions. We may mention, as a proof of the state of Byzantine knowledge, that the Paschal Chronicle, which in that age was received as a work of authority, describes Britain as "a city built by Claudius Caesar on the borders of the ocean."

Voltwick failed in the objects of his mission; but he brought Nicander back with him in his suite, and retained him in his service when he was sent on another embassy to England. In fulfilment of his promise, the Coreyean wrote an

account of his travels in three books, the first of which relates to Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands, and the second, which is now published, to England. Nicander adds very little to our store of information; he directed his attention principally to ecclesiastical affairs, and the most interesting portions of his work are the anecdotes he collected respecting the suppression of monasteries. Of the people, he observes, "The race of men is fair, inclining to a light colour; in their persons they are tall and erect; the hair of their beard and head is of a golden hue; their eyes blue, for the most part, and their cheeks are ruddy; they are martial and valorous, and generally tall; flesh eaters, and insatiable of animal food; sottish and unrestrained in their appetites; full of suspicion." But though he accuses us of being suspicious, he gives his Eastern friends some wondrous proofs that we are not jealous:—

"Almost all, indeed, except the nobles, and those in attendance on the royal person, pursue mercantile concerns. And not only does this appertain to men, but it devolves, in a very great extent upon women also. And to this, they are wonderfully addicted. And one may see in the markets and streets of the city married women and damsels employed in arts, and barterings and affairs of trade, undisguisedly. But they display great simplicity and absence of jealousy in their usages towards females. For not only do those who are of the same family and household kiss them on the mouth with salutations and embraces, but even those too who have never seen them. And to themselves this appears by no means indecent."

London, he informs his correspondents, "in temples and public edifices and baths," surpasses all the cities of England:—

"And somewhere about the middle of the city a certain place is set apart, where there is daily an assemblage of merchants, from which there arise very extensive barterings and traffic. And among themselves also they circulate what are called bills of exchange, which in Greek one would term *enallagas*. And it is something of this sort: when, for instance, any merchant arrives thither, having sold, perhaps, whatever merchandise belonged to him, but not wishing to keep the money in his pocket, from fear of the attacks of pirates on the voyage, or of robbers by land perhaps, he receives from the purchasers of his merchandise the above-mentioned bill of exchange. And it is a piece of paper not very large, exhibiting the amount of the estimated merchandise. And to whatever city of note in Europe he may wish to have remitted the bill of exchange, containing the name of the drawer, and of him who ought to pay the money, and likewise also of him who ought to receive it, on coming to him who ought to pay the money, and showing the written paper, straightway without hesitation he subscribes his name to the paper; and after eight days he advances the money without any dispute. And such bills of exchange are customary in almost all the most conspicuous of the cities of Europe; companies of merchants sending money through them in exchange to other merchants. Whence in London, and in Antwerp in Flanders, more than elsewhere, such transactions take place. And ships arrive from every country, freighted with all kinds of merchandise; they import malmsey wine, for instance, from Crete; and they bring oil from Peloponnesus and Calabria, and a great quantity of provisions from Spain and France itself. And they exchange the imported cargo for woollen garments, which they call *serges*. For they carry abroad these garments throughout the whole world, exported, as one may see, from this island. And one may wonder at the great abundance of these; so many being imported into Europe, and Asia, and Africa, that there is no city or region destitute of such garments. And with these, as we said, the ships are freighted in exchange. And not only so, but also with what is called white lead, differing but little in appearance from silver, and which is, as miners know, the most beautiful of substances excavated throughout the world; of this they form vessels and serviceable utensils. But, moreover, they export annually from the island the wool of sheep, to an immense extent,

And no small revenue accrues to the King from this; and the white lead which is called *cassiterus*; but in the Italian language it is called *stangon* (stanno). And the city is in the highest degree well regulated under the King and the other authorities, by regal and private laws."

The Scotch, he says, are even "a more barbarous people in their manner of living than the English;" and thus much he reports from observation, having visited Scotland. Of the Irish, he speaks on the authority of others—but after diligent inquiry, and the rejection of many fabulous stories, he thus sums up for the information of his correspondents—and he wrote, be it observed, about the middle of the sixteenth century:—

"The island Hibernia is of a fruitful nature, and yields corn, and furnishes animals of all kinds; and whatever things are in England and Scotland, in none of these is it inferior. But yet they do not pay so much attention to civil polity. As many, indeed, as live in cities and walled towns have something of human polity and administration. But such, on the other hand, as live in forests and bogs are entirely wild and savage; and there remains only the human form, whereby they may be distinguished to be men. They are tall, fair-complexioned, and rather light haired; wearing much hair on their heads, and having a shaggy beard. They go at all seasons without any other clothing than that which covers their loins. And neither heat nor cold annoys or enfeebles them. But they devote themselves to archery, and practise running with excessive endurance, so as frequently to contend in speed with horses and hunting dogs. And they gird on their thigh a barbaric sword, not very long, and in their left hand they carry certain javelins. And they throw with so good an aim, that their skill in hitting the mark is by many thought to be marvellous. They wear neither covering on their heads nor shoes to their feet; are swift of foot, and engage in battle hand to hand; habituating themselves to feats of desperate courage and hardihood. And as many of them as appear to live in a more civilized manner, having sewed together vestments of linen and hemp of all colours, clothe themselves in garments extending to their feet, and made after a barbaric fashion. And their wives also are accustomed to wear something of the same kind. \* \* They feed on every thing, and gorge themselves to excess with flesh. They are continually eating milk and butter. And if the King of England need their service, they are able to muster to the number of ten thousand or even more. And the men, being valorous in feats of war, have frequently acquired renown."

His history of a pious fraud practised by the Franciscans is curious, though its veracity is rather questionable. He reports that the friars had a large cross of silver prepared, to which an image of the Saviour was suspended, having a date engraved on it of a thousand years before. This they concealed in a cave, and then circulated a report that the existence of a miraculous crucifix had been supernaturally revealed to an ascetic of their order. A multitude, including, as he says, not merely the rabble "but persons in authority, and some of the Senate," assembled and went in procession to witness its disinterment:—

"The wondrous old man, having taken a spade, with tears commenced to delve. And having ordered the others also to do this, they took part in the labour. Having descended then as much as an ell, a sudden light broke forth. And feigning that their eyes were dazzled, they remained speechless. And whereas others did not venture to approach, the old man exhorted these. But some of the bolder sort having drawn near, began to shout and to chaunt: 'We praise thee, O God!' and so forth. But when they brought up the cross from the recesses of the earth, and they beheld the miraculous fire, there was no one but went away wondering; and with pious veneration glorified God."

The crucifix was now brought back to the monastery in triumph, and erected in a conspicuous place:—

"And what followed? Pious pilgrimages of numberless persons to the cross; confessions of sins, both

of men and women. And there was contrived also something of this nature; for when these disclosed their sins, those who received their confessions, and were also called Ghostly Fathers, sent them away to the cross, with the view of entreating remission of sins and plenary absolution. These, therefore, arriving, kneeling down, and pouring forth tears, as many as placed gold, or any thing else of considerable value, at the feet of the image on the cross, obtained pardon and remission; for the image on the cross signified assent by nodding its head. But, on the other hand, those who brought insufficient gold, by no means obtained remission; the image intimating this also."

Having described with needless particularity the means by which the motions intimating assent or dissent were produced, Nicander next informs us how the fraud was discovered:—

"The artist who had contrived the cross, arrived in London from Antwerp, for the monks had caused it to be fabricated there; and having heard the rumours about the cross, came also with others for the purpose of venerating the image and honouring the deity. Having, therefore, come, as he gazed on the cross, he began to form conjectures, suspecting that the cross was the work of his own hand. Whence having very long and minutely examined it, he became sufficiently assured that the workmanship was his own; whereon, indeed, he made a disclosure to some of those about him. And they themselves having communicated the saying to others, the report became so extensively circulated, that it reached the ears of the King himself. And he without delay summoned the image maker from Antwerp into his presence. When, therefore, he was come, and had been questioned, and had pointed out the person sent to Antwerp by the monks of the fraternity, to give him the orders for executing the cross, the King obtained full and satisfactory evidence. Whence, having caused the monk to be stretched out on the rack, and put to the torture, he confessed all the things which had been devised by the monks. The King, therefore, having apprehended all these, shut them up in prison; and, shortly after, he deprived their chiefs of life by hanging, but the rest he decapitated with the sword; and others also having driven from the island, he condemned to perpetual banishment. And the miraculous image, with the collected riches, he assigned to the royal treasury; and the monastery he razed to the very foundation."

This work, on the whole, is rather a literary curiosity than a historical document; and as we understand that the entire of Nicander's travels is about to be edited by one of the officers of the Ambrosian Library, we think that the fragment was hardly worthy of the patronage of the Camden Society.

*The Prophecy of Balaam; and other Poems.* By Helen Lowe. Exeter, Hannaford; London, Murray.

WE are far enough removed from the days when Sir Roger thought it prudent only "to show" his author friend "at a distance," and the squirearchy endeavoured to get a glimpse of the strange animal by peeping "over a hedge." But it appears to us that even a greater revolution has taken place since the meritorious Mrs. Carter, for translating 'Epicurus,' was regarded by her sex with as much curiosity as admiration; since the time when the wife of a Lancashire Baronet—a frank and sincere woman, too—resorted to the artifice of describing the Author of 'Clarissa' as Mr. Dickenson, that she might not fall under the reproach of being known to correspond with an author. Cabined and confined, as some are pleased to describe the women of England, by disqualifying laws and ordinances of society, they have, nevertheless, of late years, gained no small extent of territory from Man's domain. A learned woman is no longer a social unicorn, whose existence is deemed miraculous: Poetess and Slattern have ceased to be synonymous; and though Art still seems capriciously to shut against them the doors of some of her noblest temples, Literature has so largely endowed her daughters, that, in this matter, at least, the Wolstonecrofts of the Victorian era can no longer complain of unequal justice measured to Woman and her Master. We must frankly say, that these considerations have been recalled to us, rather by the Hebrew motto prefacing Miss Lowe's

sacred drama, than by the intrinsic power, fancy, or originality of her poems. Of the four schools of modern verse—the Contemplative, the Fantastic, the Passionate, and the Resonant—she affects the last; seems to be ambitious of following in the steps of Milton, rather than of Wordsworth, or Shelley, or Byron. Yet her success has not been great. Waving all invidious comparison as to first conception, her sacred drama, though more readable than Miss Barrett's 'Seraphim,' is far less musical in its regular simplicity, than the other was in its capricious intricacy of cadenced rhyme. In the Resonant school, all synecopations (as the Mozarts phrase it,) of rhythm—all transpositions of phrase are rejected: the result is, in its masters, a rich monotony, but, in its scholars, a wearisome meagreness. There is no fear, that, in these strictures, we shall be thought to counsel Miss Lowe to adopt those quips and conceits of language which so painfully embarrass and disfigure some of our noblest-thoughted and loftiest poets. She possesses, where her rhyme is poorest in matter and meaning, an appearance, if not a reality, of Nature, which is an excellence superior to that of the *concettisti*. But, this counterbalancing merit granted, there is little to tempt us to extract from Miss Lowe's longer poems. Neither 'The Prophecy' nor 'The Queen's Choice' is dramatic, save in name. The scriptural subject furnished fine scope for any one able to grapple with the inner struggles of passion. The mercenary hireling, possessed, in despite of his own ambition, by the Spirit of Eternal Truth, and compelled to utter its mandates, is a fine subject for the artist:—the creature so mean, the Creator so powerful, that he can win triumphs even out of the mouth of Cupidity and Unbelief! Not a thought of this high argument seems to have crossed Miss Lowe's mind while she was writing her 'Balaam.' 'The Queen's Choice' hardly equals it in merit. 'The Tragical Story of Daphnes and Dornelles' is better, but so successful an imitation of the most uncouth forms of old ballad minstrelsy, that few, we fear, will have patience to wade through it. That we may not, however, leave the volume in a cavilling mood, we will, and as we have accidentally, for illustration's sake, mentioned Miss Barrett in conjunction with our authoress, give a translated hymn or two from Novalis, which the reader may be glad to compare with those fine specimens from Gregory Nazianzen, which so recently enriched our columns:

Far the eastern sky is glowing,  
Hoary Time again grows young;  
From golden springs of light fair-flowing  
Take one draught inspiring, long.  
Blest fulfillment of long yearnings old,  
Godlike apparent, gentles love behold!  
At last, at last to earth descending,  
The holy Child of Heaven is come;  
Gales of life in music blending,  
Breathe o'er the land awakening bloom—  
Breathe into flame that never more expires,  
The scattered embers of extinguished fires.  
From the deepabyss reviving,  
Now life and energies uprising.  
See Him in life's ocean diving,  
Endless peace for us to bring.  
Lo, in the midst with bliss-bestowing hands,  
Heedful of every suppliant He stands.  
Let His aspect, mildly beaming,  
Deeply sink thy soul within;  
Thus, His joys unmeasured, streaming  
O'er thee, ever shalt thou win.  
All spirits, hearts, and reasonings of men,  
In choral harmony shall mingle then.  
To reach His arms be thy endeavour;  
Impressed within His traits instil;  
Towards Him must thou turn for ever,  
Spread forth unto the sunshine still.  
Lay bare thine heart to Him, let all else perish,  
And like a faithful spouse he will thee cherish.  
Now to dwell with us is given  
The Godhead once terrific found;  
Wakening to life the seed of Heaven,  
From the north to southern bound—  
Wait awhile, and God's own garden fair  
For us unfading flower and fruit shall bear.  
Of all the golden hours whose light  
Oft cheered my youth with promise bright,  
One only true thou dost bid;  
One, that mid sorrow and distress,  
Set free my spirit, to confess  
His power for us who died.  
My world of joys was crushed and void,  
My bosom withered, peace destroyed,  
As flowers by cankering worm;  
I saw my dearest hopes expire,  
The grave close o'er my last desire,  
Despair, my being's term.



With silent agony oppress,  
While mourning thus I longed for rest  
Earth never might restore;  
Sudden a ray above me broke,  
The grave-stone rolled away—I woke  
To bliss undreamt before.

What glorious vision on me fell,  
Ear may not hear, no tongue can tell,  
None other thought efface;  
That hour on memory graven deep  
As the wide wounds it healed, shall keep  
Its ever brightening trace.

Though our opinion of the poetical merits of this small volume may not equal that entertained by the partial friends of its authoress, we cannot conclude without once again saying,—Honour to the women of England, whose leisure hours bear such fruit as its pages offer!

*Europe in MDCCCXL.* Translated from the German of Wolfgang Menzel. Edinburgh, Black.

This work escaped our notice on its first publication, but we shall not, therefore, let it pass in silence. The original, of which it is a translation, was avowedly intended in some measure as a reply to a work entitled 'The European Pentarchy,' written by some partisan of Russia, with the view of sowing dissensions among the German States, and conciliating favour to Russian encroachment. Disregarding, however, its controversial character, we shall consider it as an attempt to explain the present working of what we may call the great European machine, by an analysis of the several political forces that act upon the various states composing it; sometimes exerting their influence concurrently, and producing alliances and sympathies; sometimes antagonist to one another, and tending, in their results, to dissension, distrust, and war.

By the European Pentarchy, as the phrase was employed by the Russian pamphleteer, was merely intended the five leading powers—England, Russia, France, Austria, and Prussia. In the Pentarchy of Wolfgang Menzel, the power of Dynasties and Governments constitutes but one of the five elements. The others are the powers of Nationality, Religious Opinion, Political Principles, and Material Interests. He observes—

"In speaking of the Great Powers of Europe, the first question is, what do we properly understand by the term *political powers*? That term cannot at the present day be confined to Dynasties and Governments. There must be other powers to which Dynasties and Governments are indebted for the strength they have attained; powers occasionally threatening them not only from without but also from within. Not unfrequently these powers have become so mighty that, overthrowing ancient states and kingdoms, and introducing others in their stead, they have carried Europe along as by a hurricane, and have created entirely new interests. We recognise as such powers, the power of Nationality; the power of Religious Opinion; the power of Political Principles; and the power of Material Interests. These are the great powers of our day, which, intimately conjoined with the power of existing Dynasties and Governments, form the proper Pentarchy of Europe. • • • Whatever country in our day is powerful, derives its power from the energy, the vitality, the recollections and the hopes, the renown and the ambition of the people;—from religious sympathies, sincere piety, and constancy in belief, and from the still active interests of church parties;—from the strength of principle, and the firm resolves of political associations;—or from the advancement of material interests, along with the well-being and activity of the working-classes;—or, lastly, from several, or from all these sources of power combined. But much depends on how far, within any country, these powers are not in opposition to each other; and to what extent the government is at liberty to employ them,—and, further, what is the degree of external sympathy and antipathy toward that country; what natural allies or natural enemies there are abroad. Only according to these circumstances can the true power of a country be estimated. Several appear to have many

means at their command, but cannot freely employ them; others can employ their means freely, and are in reality powerful, but are thwarted by greater antipathies from without."

An objection might perhaps be made to our author's Pentarchy as an illogical division, inasmuch as his fifth power, that of Dynasties or Governments, is the resultant of the other four. But he obviates this remark, by observing, that "in every country at present the governments alone wield the *initiative*. Risings of whole nations, or of great religious sects, violent outbreaks of political parties in favour of a principle, are very improbable events"; and further,—

"Without overlooking the fact, that European Governments derive their power from very different, and not always from permanent sources, still in them we behold the manifest possessors, and the outward representatives, of everything which is denominated power."

The name of England is placed first upon the roll, "her power being derived from all the sources from which the power of a state can flow." The writer notices the advantage she enjoys, "in exciting no apprehensions by the supposed desire of possessing territory on the continent. This circumstance at once secures to England permanent sympathies and alliances among continental nations." Respecting the power of Nationality, it is well observed that no part of this source of British greatness "was lost even by the constrained acknowledgment of the independence of the United States." The remarks on religious opinion and the state of parties in this country we pass over, as they do not possess much novelty or interest; but what is said on the subject of our Material Interests is worth quoting.

"By attention to her Material Interests, England has made herself the richest country in the world; and notwithstanding the fictitious national debt, has a command of money to an extent beyond that of any other state. In asserting the dominion of the sea, and, by direct as well as indirect means, enforcing a monopoly of trade; she has, no doubt, often wronged the nations of the Continent, deeply mortified and injured them in their most essential rights and interests; but the antipathies awakened by such conduct do not in general outweigh the sympathies in her favour. The jealousy existing among the Continental powers, and the necessity of an alliance with England in every great political crisis, prevails against the feeling of commercial indignity."

Russia occupies the next place in the scale. With her, National Feeling is the basis of power, a feeling "so much the stronger as being somewhat barbarous. The Russians are numerous, united, and blindly devoted to the Czar. No Russian ever dreams of breaking Russia asunder." The second stronghold of Russia is the power of religion. The Czar and Patriarch are one. Church and State, such unwieldy and complex parties in other countries, are there united and embodied in one man. Hence the priests are implicit vassals of the Emperor, and schism is treason. We are told, also, "that the people are passively devout, believe what their priests tell them, and implicitly regard the will of the Emperor as the will of the Almighty." At the bottom of this system lies the most abject intellectual debasement and the profoundest ignorance. "*Omnia noctis erant*," may be rendered, all was the Czar's. This may be power to-day, but it will be weakness to-morrow. But, after all, this unity in the Russian church is not true to the extent stated; treason or no treason, schism does exist there, although the writer engaged to furnish a popular history of Russia for the use of the national schools was, by special ordonnance, required to show "that the orthodox church had never been troubled with heresies," as the reader may see if he refer to the *Athen.* No. 474, where the subject was fully considered. On the Political Principle of Russia as an ele-

ment of her natural force, the views of our author are luminous and well expressed:—

"Russia owes to her Political Principles a portion of her excessive power. Russia is the only state which upholds an unlimited autocracy; and within whose vast dominions one man rules uncontrolled by opposition, nay without even the remonstrance of a single deliberative body. All her means are brought to a point, and ready for immediate application. The geographical extent of Russia alone retards the execution of an imperial mandate. Necessarily, from the adherence of Russia to the principles of legitimacy and absolutism; all other governments who adopt the same principle, but of themselves cannot, without much trouble and danger, maintain it outright; and who, on that account, require external aid and support; become the friends, and relatively the clients of Russia. When such governments are molested by outbreaks of popular feeling, they have recourse to Russian diplomacy and intervention; and if the worst happen, they know a secure retreat is to be found in Russia. Accordingly, Russia appears to have many natural allies. But principle yields to interest; and the same governments who, in regard to absolutism, most nearly coincide with Russia, have an interest adverse to her, as neighbours; so far as they are strong enough, like Austria and Prussia, being natural rivals of Russia; while the countries notoriously more feeble are afraid of losing, by Russian agency, their national existence. On the contrary, France has, indeed, many interests in common with Russia; among others, to weaken the states of Germany; but in France the Constitutional, almost the Democratic, principle predominates, the very principle of all others most opposed to that upheld by Russia. Consequently, Russia derives every possible internal advantage from her form of government, but externally none whatever. Governments agreeing in opinion sympathize cautiously with Russia, and always retain their peculiar interests in reserve; while the people of Europe, enjoying, even under absolute monarchies, greater freedom than Russia, view her principles with dislike."

The state of Russia is one of gloomy isolation; in Europe, yet not of Europe; the natural enemy of constitutional and enlightened states; the polished shrinking from her barbarism, the free revolting from her autocracy, the great jealous of her power, the feeble dreading her rapacity; and when we come to consider her in the aspect of the Material Interests, we find the hostility of her foes increased, and the sympathies of her friends diminished.

"The Russian government most zealously forwards the Material Interests of their own country; but only in so far as suits their prohibitive system, in regard to foreign articles. For this reason they still cling to the old maxims of trade; and, perhaps, in Russia, which of itself affords so large a market, these maxims may be more applicable than in smaller countries; besides, the consumption among the mass of the Russian people, is different from that in countries possessing a numerous and intelligent middle class of society. Meanwhile the exclusive system of Russia operates prejudicially on her external relations; keeping alive in the neighbouring states a strong feeling against her."

The prevalent notion of the mighty force of the Russian empire is a delusion, produced by the enormous extent of the territory subject to the Czar. We are extremely liable to error in our estimate of human power. Sometimes we infer it from mere numbers; sometimes from mere wealth; sometimes from mere size. The mistake in the last instance, when committed in the measurement of national energies, is the more remarkable, inasmuch as a vast extent of dominion, considered apart from other considerations, is as much a source of debility to a kingdom, as an unwieldy frame is to an individual. Mr. McGregor observes, in his 'Commercial and Financial Legislation,' that "by far the greater part of the Russian empire is a wilderness, thinly inhabited by a people, the nobles excepted, living nearly all in the serfage state." Europe may safely disregard the immensity of

the Czar's deserts, and even wish him increase of his howling wastes. An acre of fertile ground in England or Prussia is worth a province of snow, or a kingdom in a swamp. The resources, however, of about one-third of the empire, are stated by Mr. McGregor to be "of immense value;" but his remarks upon the Russian policy, in the development of these resources, coincide with those of the German writer before us. "Russia might have an ample instead of a miserably deficient revenue, and a commerce of vast extent, were it not for her pernicious anti-commercial tariff, now (with the exception of those of France and Spain) the most illiberal in the world. Russia may be said to prohibit the importation of every material which can be drawn from her mines and forests; and of every manufacture that the labour of her serfs can produce." He admits, however, "that this prohibitive system, so generally injurious to the empire, may be very profitable to the nobles at Moscow and elsewhere." At the same time, this prohibitive system, however injurious it may be to the Russian exchequer, and pregnant with physical suffering to the population, is an essential part of the policy of the empire, and no Czar of Muscovy will ever depart from it, as he values his barbarian throne. Commerce is the forerunner of intelligence, and intelligence the pioneer of freedom. The Russian tariff prohibits the trade of mind as well as the trade in hides and timber. Her embargoes on foreign merchandise are also her securities against the introduction of the habits and materials of thought. The world will never behold a despotic government adorned with a free trade.

Proceeding to France, this ingenious writer considers the chief strength of the French to consist in their Nationality. "Of the power of Religious Opinion, there is none that can now be applied to purposes of state." He disposes of the Material Interests of France rather too curtly in the following passage:—

"In promoting their Material Interests, the French are not remarkably skilled. Individually, there is no lack among them of a desire of gain; but the ministry and the chambers are, for the most part, otherwise employed. However important, also, it may be for Louis Philippe to direct the views of the people into such a channel, and withdraw them from political opposition, he has not yet been successful in his endeavour; and in their system of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, there prevails neither unity nor liberality."

The extreme illiberality of the French commercial system surely deserved more pointed notice, considered in its prejudicial effects upon her national wealth and power. We cannot agree with what Wolfgang Menzel says in another place, "that, in general, the power of Material Interests is of all others in our day the least misapprehended." The *most* would be nearer to the truth. The English writer already quoted forcibly observes—"A war of Material Interests, or more properly speaking of Material Injuries,—a war of custom-houses, or fiscal forts, with their garrisons of revenue officers and servants,—has long been carried on between most European nations. This warfare has not ceased with the wars of bloodshed; and if we may even expect security against a recurrence of the calamities attendant on the latter, it will be in destroying the elements of the former."

The fourth State in rank is Austria, to which the application of the author's analysis of powers is most unfavourable. In the first place Nationality is wanting. Austria is not a nation, like France or England, but a cluster of nations,—German, Romanic, Slavonic,—each having its separate nationality. "She has not the good fortune of being able to retire on the support of one great undivided people." These several nationalities, however, owe their maintenance to

the imperial power, and support it in return. Hungary, for example, has preserved an individuality under the house of Hapsburg, which she must have lost under Turkish or Russian sway. On the point of religion, it is observed,—

"From the power of Religious Opinion and the Church, Austria receives only a conditional support. By far the larger number of her subjects are Catholic, and thoroughly Catholic.—Austria may now be considered as the only power which gives effectual support to the Romish See, and which, therefore, has a claim on Apostolical gratitude and services;—an additional and manifest advantage to Austria. Nevertheless the possession of this source of power is accompanied with much embarrassment. Austria gains an authoritative countenance for her internal, but not at the same time for her external, policy. The stronger emphasis she might lay on her Catholicism; the more she might seek to employ her apostolical influence against other nations; the greater would be her risk of exciting antipathies, which on no consideration she dare hazard."

This is to be understood in reference to the alliances of Austria with the Protestant states of Prussia and England. The author considers "Austria the natural and oldest ally of England on the continent"; and he advances strong reasons in favour of the opinion, that an alliance with Prussia is, of all continental alliances, the most natural one for Austria. On the two remaining sources of power, in reference to the Austrian empire, the sentiments of this writer are as follows:—

"The advantage which Austria derives from the power of Political Principle, at least in regard to her external policy, is also conditional. She stands on the side of Absolutism, but only in the second rank, the first being occupied by Russia. Austria must feel that Russia appropriates the whole merit of that system, while she herself is unable to obtain a share. In one instance, the constitutional forms of Hungary are an exception to the absolutism of Austria; by Russia, however, that mode of government is maintained without the slightest deviation. Then, again, Austria borders immediately on the constitutional states of the West, and is more exposed than Russia to the effects of contiguity and example. Russia, shut out in the back ground of Europe, possesses in Austria and Prussia two bulwarks against the freedom of the West. Finally, from the power of Material Interests, Austria obtains a slender benefit. She avails herself of the abundant wealth of her own territory; but her gains from abroad are not in equal proportion, nor does she provide for herself any natural alliances by the removal of commercial restrictions."

The Prussian power reposes, in the first place, "on the basis of German Nationality." Prussia is fundamentally German, as France is French, and England English. It is true, that through not more than a third of her dominions is the German tongue spoken, but in this fraction "she has not only developed a wonderful degree of power, greatly beyond proportion to its size; but she has also, since the establishment of the Zoll-Verein, or Commercial League, acquired strong sympathies with the rest of Germany." Then—"As to the Slavonic part of the Prussian population, they unavoidably must be at length assimilated with the predominant German part. If the Slavonic population of Prussia were more numerous, they might possibly claim an independent existence, such as the Hungarians enjoy."

Prussia is said to derive "not the slightest stability from the power of Religious Opinion." The following are the grounds upon which this position is hazarded:—

"Prussia is the natural heir of the Reformation; the chief defender of Protestantism on the continent. This conspicuous part she assumed, when it was relinquished through the apostasy and feebleness of the electoral house of Saxony. Prussia became also the guardian of Calvinism when the power of Holland declined. That in her new position she should bring together the two great reformed parties was natural, and a consequence of their mutual relations. \* \*

The Prussian government, while conferring greater external unity on their Protestant subjects, have not been equally attentive to the promotion of internal unity. By internal unity we do not here mean a uniformity of thoughts and feelings. In such an attempt, the Prussian government would, among an enlightened people, have failed in their aim; besides acting in opposition to the Protestant principle of free inquiry. Still they ought perhaps to have interfered less, either with the one sect or the other, in the uncontrolled adjustment of their belief and tenets; a far preferable course would have been to have left such things alone. By their open approbation of Hegel's philosophy, not a little encouragement has been given to the schism of Speculative Theology and Pietism, at this time threatening the evangelical church. \* \* Added to these discussions among the Protestants, is the odious dispute with the Catholics; a dispute ten years ago no one would have imagined possible; but which nevertheless has suddenly rekindled in our day all the passions exhibited in the middle ages, during the controversies about investiture. We shall not here enter more particularly into a subject so polemical; and shall satisfy ourselves with remarking, that this religious discord weakens the position of Prussia externally, and keeps up mutual antipathies among her own population."

Nor is she more fortunate in point of Political Principle. As an Absolutist she ranks after both Russia and Austria. Her natural political allies are linked still more closely to those greater despotic states, and her principles excite antipathies, just where sympathies would be most desirable. The Material Interests constitute, with her German Nationality, the main force of the Prussian monarchy.

"The power of Material Interests is, together with nationality, the strongest and most unflinching support of Prussia. The plan of a uniform scale of transit duties for the different States of Germany (the introduction of the Zoll-verein), and the glorious campaign of the year 1815, shed a lustre over the long and memorable reign of the late king. The peaceful league and the warlike exploits have equally proved what may be effected by Prussia combined with the rest of Germany; when the rest of Germany and Prussia join heart and hand."

The Zoll-Verein, or Union of Customs, may be considered as combining the material interests of Prussia with those of the whole Germanic family. Mr. McGregor observes, that by this great union she has "realized the primary object of her policy, that of extending her power from the frontiers of France and Belgium to those of Russia. She has nationalized, in one grand confederation, Northern and South-western Germany, by acquiring the friendly disposition of an intelligent moral population, and making the petty sovereignties chiefly dependent for their future revenues on the permanence of the union; and their fidelity to Prussia in peace and war as the future condition on which they can exist as sovereigns."

#### OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

*De Montfort; or the Old English Nobleman*, 3 vols. — "It literally comprises a sample of everything—from marbles to manslaughter." This is the author of 'De Montfort's' puff preliminary of his own book. We cannot acquiesce in its truth. A sample is a specimen: here we have only labels; names, by the hundred, of the profligate gentry of the reign of Louis Quinze—of the brilliant home circles adorned by Garrick, Walpole, Reynolds, and Johnson,—and of the strange ingredients which made up the great Frederick's court at Berlin. To give samples of any one division of the celebrities here enumerated,—probable fragments of their talk,—pictures of their demeanour,—still more to interweave these with (not patch them upon) a story, is beyond the power of the author of 'De Montfort.' His book has all the bustle of a crowd, but none of its colour and life—the wearisome profusion of an encyclopædia, and yet it conveys no single accurate idea. It is a poor specimen of the newspaper school of novel-writing, which, not even a "Cecil's" spite will ever make

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popular. We declare this all the more freely, because, had the author chosen to stick to his story, and leave out nine-tenths of its episodic and ill-executed decorations, he might have produced a romance of passion and of power. Aimless as is the old English Nobleman's autobiography, it contains glimpses of imagined characters, and melo-dramatic combinations of situation and incident, vivid enough to make us encourage him to forget "the old Almanac," in any future attempt, and trust to himself.

*Esop's Fables written in Chinese by the learned Man Mooy Seen-Shang, with a free and a literal translation by his pupil Sloth.*—The fables in this volume were published in Chinese about four years ago; Mr. Thom translated them into the Mandarin or learned dialect, and then gave them to his teacher to be rendered into the easier and more popular style of Chinese composition. When the work first appeared, it produced a great sensation in Canton; the fables of the Greek stoic found universal favour in their new dress, until the Mandarins, finding that some of the Morals were inconveniently applicable to their own evil customs, prohibited the book. Mr. Thom has now republished the Chinese version with a translation and notes, in order to supply what has long been a desideratum, an easy introductory book for those who wish to enter on the study of the Chinese language and literature. M. Stanislas Julien, one of the first Chinese scholars in Europe, has borne testimony to the excellence and utility of the work, and has recommended it to students. It is not likely that the study of Chinese will ever be popular in this country; the difficulties to be overcome would require such a rare union of enthusiasm and industry as Mr. Thom himself has displayed, and the probable reward of all such exertions would be barren laurels. It is true that Mr. Thom has been appointed one of her Majesty's interpreters in China, and his merits have been made known to his countrymen by his translation of Ke-Shen's memorial to the Emperor, which appeared last year in all the English papers; but it is equally true that until the sending out of an expedition rendered such an appointment necessary, Mr. Thom had to struggle through many difficulties and discouragements which he could not have surmounted without the generous assistance of private individuals. We are a singular people: every nation in Europe but ourselves affords assistance and encouragement to those who devote themselves to the study of the oriental languages; while we, who have more intimate and important relations with the East than all the rest of Christendom put together, cannot afford to bestow as much patronage on the cultivation of Eastern languages and literature as one of the petty states of Germany. We have had diplomatic and commercial relations with Turkey for nearly three centuries, and yet there is not a single professor of the Turkish language in England. The consequence is, that our public business at Constantinople is conducted virtually by a foreign dragoman, and the recent case "Pisani versus Lawson" contains edifying illustrations of the benefits of such an arrangement. The only remedy for such an evil is the establishment by the government of a college or institution for teaching the spoken languages of the East; Russia, Austria, and France, have set us the example, and this is one of the cases in which we should be content to be imitators.

*De Arte Logistica Johannis Napier libri quæ superant.*—A work on Algebra by the illustrious inventor of logarithms, printed from his papers under the superintendence of Mr. Mark Napier. It is not sold, but privately distributed. It seems to be unfinished, and drawn up by the writer either for his own use or as the preliminary part of a larger work. It is not, therefore, a proper subject of criticism as regards its contents, nor will it add a single jewel to the crown of John Napier. Had it been a complete work, that is, had what we now have been a complete work, it would only have proved that Napier was not abreast of his contemporaries, either continental or English, and that he wrote on Algebra before he invented logarithms, or applied the decimal notation to fractions. But as an historical monument, it is valuable. Our readers may think that John Napier was a man who devoted his life to science. No such thing: he considered it as the great object of his life to explain the Revelations, and by such

explanation to overturn the Pope, and scatter his adherents. From this principal pursuit, Arithmetic and Algebra were his relaxations. But how many persons will now learn, for the first time, that Napier ever wrote on the Apocalypse; while few are ignorant that he invented logarithms, even among those who do not know what logarithms are. The end of Napier's treatise on the Revelations is funny enough. He has proved the downfall of the Pope from St. John, and also from the remnants (supposed spurious) of the sibylline verses, and he then leaves the poor Bishop of Rome forked in the following dilemma:—"In summam conclusionem, if thou O Rome, adleges thyself reformed, and to beleue true Christianisme, then beleue Saint John the Disciple, whome Christ loued, publicly here in this Reuelation proclaiming thy wracke, but if thou remaine Ethnick in thy priuate thoughts, beleueing the old Oracles of the Sibyls reuerently kepte sometime in thy Capitol: then doth here this Sibyll proclame also thy wracke. Repent therefore alwayes, in this thy latter breath, as thou louest thine Eternall Salvation. Amen." The word 'alwayes' here obviously means 'on either supposition'; so that Napier, while admitting an 'eternal Salvation' procurable by an 'ethnick' repentance, sends Christian Rome to 'wracke,' that is, to future destruction.

*Heiber's German Grammar.*—This is a good practical introduction to the German language. It supplies the student with such general principles as are required to be known before commencing either to read or to speak the language, and then offers him the rules of construction precisely as they are wanted. The most novel part of the work is the section on the etymological correspondence between the English and German languages; the study of the analogies which the author has pointed out, will supply a learner with a tolerably copious vocabulary of German words, through the medium of his own language.

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#### RAMBLES IN BYE-WAYS—SWITZERLAND AND THE SWISS.

THERE are two points whence countries may be viewed—their highways and their bye-ways. Along the former flow the great concourse of travellers, and the main volume of observation. It would be difficult to find a continental high road, or line of ordinary route, not thoroughly developed, and of which each object is not already amply discussed in guide-book, tour, or journal. Not so with the bye-ways, which are, as it were, the veins of a country, wherein its life moves, and the character of its real constitution can be best tested.

That there is much, very much to be seen, especially of scenery and sights, on the high road, I am far from disputing. But two facts are worthy of note: first, that though the scenery may, the society, manners, morals, habits and character of a country, do not lie on its highways; and secondly, that we are far too apt to think they do.

The people of a country, are not usually those whom we meet at inns; especially abroad. They are mostly either foreigners like ourselves, or persons, part of whose business it is to travel. Neither afford any specimen of the inhabitants. Moreover, there is a character as peculiar to the traveller as his costume. He is not at home. The natural character of a man is more or less affected by the novelties, pains, pleasures, and incidents of his position. He is liable to be unduly irritated by impositions, depressed by disappointments, and overjoyed by the pleasures of his journey, to an extent and often with a suddenness of transition, from which the same man at home is wholly or nearly wholly exempt. Of the inns and innkeepers a very accurate estimate may assuredly be formed from high-road travelling; but with the manners and all that constitute the character of a people, the ordinary tourist returns as little acquainted, as he would be with London, after viewing it in a panorama.

Unfortunately we are peculiarly prone to build general opinions on our coach-window views and table d'hôte experiences. The perceptions of a traveller are unusually active and acute: he is more alive to what he sees and hears, and is doubly more susceptible of impressions than under the ordinary circumstances of life. The characters and events which present themselves to his notice, are chiefly novel to him, and remain isolated and forcibly imprinted on the memory. They mould his impressions, and by them alone he suffers his opinions to be moulded; for few travellers either fail to form them, or content themselves with derivative judgment. People constantly avow their ignorance of circumstances, persons or places within the sphere of their visits at home; but the tourist, who excursionizes for a few summer weeks in a foreign country, feels it almost essential to the character and dignity of a traveller to import a settled code of opinions, on the manners, morals, minds, politics, and arts, sciences, literature, manufactures, and commerce of the people and empire, whose high roads and hotels have been honoured by his observation. A little knowledge is a very tenacious as well as a dangerous thing; and they who build large impressions on small grounds, are generally positive in proportion to the weakness of their authority. A gentleman who is in the habit of passing frequently through Switzerland on his way to Italy, and is invariably victimized at certain hotels where comforts are costly, and which he cannot dispense with, has imbibed a prejudice against the character of the community, chiefly from his experience of half a dozen extortionate landlords. He confesses that he has not diverged from two lines across the country; that he has not entered the German cantons, of which the population is two-thirds of all Switzerland; and has rarely visited the peasantry or the people, properly so called, of the country, which, in the same breath, he anathematizes as rapacious and grovelling. He is a specimen of a large class, who feed a prejudice against an entire community, which has greatly operated in deterring further and better acquaintance with its real qualities;—qualities which, notwithstanding many defects and blemishes, the worthiest and wisest of surrounding nations may profitably contemplate.

There are reasons why the prejudice against the Swiss is not unnatural; and why the mistake as to their character is more widely and easily imbibed

than it would be in other countries. The innkeepers with whom travellers have chiefly to do, are well nigh the wealthiest class in Switzerland—as a body, perhaps, the most so. This arises from the very great subdivision of property, and the absence of large incomes among all other classes, and from the large profits rapidly accumulated by themselves. The influx of travellers at particular seasons is very great; the establishments must be commensurate in extent, and are burdensome during several dead months in the year. It requires, therefore, great capital to enter into competition with an established Swiss hotel, and large capitals do not abound in Switzerland. The existing hotel-keepers often become the chief men of their district, and frequently fill civic and judicial offices. They are, therefore, in many cases, the only authorities to whom appeal may be made against their own extortions. A lady was charged 120 French francs, at a Swiss inn for one night's entertainment for herself and family, consisting of six persons; and post horses were refused until the whole bill was discharged. She determined to resist the imposition, and appealed to the mayor. The Gemeindegemeinde (or local mayor) gravely heard her complaint, and decided in favour of the demand. She was of course obliged to pay the bill, and at the next stage learnt that the Gemeindegemeinde was the innkeeper! Thus the hotel-keepers of Switzerland are, in many cases, judges in their own causes, and in nearly all they possess a monopoly. Few persons would be proof against the temptation and corrupting effect of power so unduly great. It is by no means a calumny to say that the innkeepers of Switzerland are eminently extortionate; but it is a grievous injustice to charge their class rapacity upon the community, of which they constitute not a thousandth part. They are, however, almost exclusively the hosts of the travelling English; and hence the prevalence of the prejudice.

Having, on more than one occasion, abandoned both the established modes and tracts of travellers in Switzerland, and steered my course with reference neither to lake nor alp, mixing with the people and observing men rather than mountains, I confess that I have found social as well as scenic beauties to admire. Hospitalities received and virtues witnessed, render it almost a duty to confront prejudices gathered on the high roads, with the result of experiences on the bye-ways of a country, which, I fear, we are more disposed to depreciate than understand.

It was on one of those brilliantly sunny evenings which enliven the autumns of Switzerland, and render the quiet green vales of the northern cantons so peculiarly attractive, that I found myself wandering in the canton of Appenzel, about equidistant from Trogen and Herisau. My guide, whose office consisted solely in carrying my knapsack and translating the *langage de pays* into intelligible German, (for I piloted my own path,) was suggesting sundry awful possibilities touching beds and suppers, if we did not hasten our steps: the sun was at no great distance from the horizon, but I was still indulging my inclination to lounge and gaze at the cattle, and the exquisite scenery of the fields, and to listen to the musical sound of the herd-bells, when a party of young people, laughing and chatting, passed by, followed by an elderly man, dressed in the old style, with a three-cornered hat, and an embroidered coat and vest. He gave me the usual salutation, for no one passes you without, and I asked him where we could best find beds and supper. He said, that if I did not mind a walk of two stunden—a couple of hours—he should recommend my going to St. Gall. I had no desire to return to a large town, one, moreover, with which I was already well acquainted, but, as he said our route lay partly together, I did not hesitate to accompany him. To my great joy, after a few sentences in tolerably good German, he spoke French, and it proved that he had, when young, served in the French army. I found him highly intelligent;—he was the proprietor of a small dairy farm, and also a manufacturer of muslins; and we soon got into an animated conversation on a variety of industrial matters.

In order to ascertain the real merits of the system pursued in any of the productive or social relations of a country, I have always found it best to suggest as many objections to it as can be done without personal offence. It elicits a multitude of facts, and often of admissions, which mere inquiry will seldom

achieve. We were deep in controversy on the merits of the sub-division of property in Switzerland, when we arrived at the summit of a long ridge of hills which had hitherto hid from view one of the loveliest valleys I had ever seen. A Swiss chalet is at all times a picturesque object: it is so even in the artificial pleasure-grounds of the Trianon; but its lifelike beauty depends on the living accompaniments which surround and characterize it in the pasture lands of Switzerland. The herds and gardens, and the peculiarly beautiful verdure of the grass, to say nothing of the cheerful appearance of the peasantry, always seem to me to add more interest to the humbler scenery of German Switzerland, than all the combined effect of glade, glacier, lake, and cataract. The beautifully wooded and watered valley rising gradually on the side opposite to us, was chequered with its fields and farms. The herds were being gathered in, and the costume and appearance of the peasant girls, of which the effect was aided by the distant sound of their merry songs, produced an impression of happiness, cheerfulness, and beauty, which one may go far and wide to equal elsewhere.

"There," said my conductor, "you were talking just now about the farming in your country, with its large estates, but I doubt whether you can pick me out a bit of land there in one lot, that has so much human comfort, or better produce, than what you see before you, and yet it belongs to not less than half-a-dozen different owners." I endeavoured to obtain data from him for estimating the comparative amount of labour bestowed on the cultivation of the land in the two countries. So completely intermixed are the artisan and agricultural branches of industry among the German Swiss peasantry, that it is next to impossible to make a calculation of the amount of agricultural labour bestowed on a given amount of land. I am, however, satisfied, that it is as little as in England, the productiveness of soil or pasture being equal. The social habits of the people enter into the solution of the problem. There is great community of labour. The properties are small, but not the quantity of land cultivated by one set of labourers. A dairy farmer has usually but five or six cows, and often not so many. To tend and stable these cows, to milk, churn, and make cheese separately, would doubtless occasion a loss of labour, which the Swiss avoid, by employing common herdsmen, and clubbing the milk, each deriving his due share of the produce. In the tillage of land, a similar community of labour, and of the use of implements, prevails. Assistance is reciprocated as a system; not as an occasional favour.

The old man would admit no defect in the system of equal inheritance, as regarded order and the public welfare: he maintained that it gave every man an interest and a stake in the very soil of his country, or made him expectant of it; for properties are so sub-divided, that nearly every man stands in one of these positions. At the same time, he said, "it spreads the conservative influence of property among all ranks of the people. Moreover, the smallness of the shares combines industrious habits with its possession; for there are few properties which, even when possessed, enable the possessor to live in idleness, whilst with you, the entail system gives great riches, and therefore power, to the idler part of the community."—"How," I asked him, "do you manage to find employment for all your people, seeing that you economize labour by community?"—"We do not," said he; "but here we are at the point where our roads separate; it is getting late; you have still a long walk, and as you seem to be anxious to know many things I should have pleasure in explaining, perhaps we could manage to give you a night's lodging, if you were not very difficult to suit with a bed, which, I fear, must be a hay one." Having joyfully accepted his offer, I sent my guide to bivouac at a neighbouring public-house, where he had the benefit of six or seven fellow snorers in one room, and fens ad libitum.

A cleaner house I never saw, than that to which my new acquaintance conducted me. Everything was neat and comfortable, but the extent to which wood-work, and mostly unpainted wood-work, prevails in all the farm-houses of this part of Switzerland, gives them an air of poverty, which the furniture by no means removes. In fact, many of the Swiss houses are so entirely composed of wood, that the

beams and boards are numbered, and it is no uncommon thing to remove a house in a day or two from one site to another. I had a hearty welcome from two athletic and rosy-cheeked damsels who were introduced as the daughters of my host; and one of whom seemed to be devoting her exclusive attention to certain culinary proceedings, in a capacious fire-place, in one corner of which sat a remarkably squat, burly, sun-burnt youth, smoking a meerschaum, dressed in a blouse and a Prussian cap, with its enormous visière, whom I at first mistook for a brother. "Carl, there," said my friend, "is an instance of what we do with our youth whom we have not work enough for at home. We send them abroad to seek it. Carl left home about three years ago, and not having much taste for being a hero, started as a cobbler; he went to the Tyrol, and before he got quite starved there, begged his way down to Turin, and obtained work with a shoemaker, to whom the Secretary of the Guild recommended him." This system of "Wanderschaft," as it is called, prevails, as is well known, throughout Germany; and the master tailors, shoemakers, furriers, &c. are accustomed to depend almost entirely on these itinerant workmen. Carl had earned, besides his board and lodging which had been found him by his employer at a *Herberge*, or lodging-house, in the towns he stayed at, on the average about 3s. a week, and had returned with a small capital of nearly 250 florins. He had returned sooner than the usual term of wanderschaft, just as he had settled himself again in Prussia, on account of his father's death, who was a small farmer, and the proprietor of no less than seven cows, and five fields, in the neighbourhood. Carl was therefore joint possessor with two brothers and an only sister, of all this landed and animal wealth; and, as a matter of course, Carl was taking the question of a wife into his serious consideration, and hence Carl's presence in that chimney-corner.

He told me that the wanderschaft journeyman often suffer severe privations, and are subject in no small degree to the tyranny and caprice of the men who employ them. For a trivial fault some of them will refuse to give a good character in the book which forms their sole passport and credential whereby they can obtain fresh employment at other towns. It taught men, he thought, to brave difficulties, and gave them many of the advantages of travel; but he had found the asking of aid, which is an established privilege of the journeymen, from travellers on the road, a sore trial of self-respect. He intended to occupy himself, in the winter evenings, in making shoes for sale, as well as for himself and his family. Sale, it can hardly be called, for the system pursued in these country districts is almost one of barter.

This renders it so difficult to state, and so easy to misrepresent the wages of labour in Switzerland. A man, whose whole capital there will not amount to 200*l.* in value, will obtain from it, added to the fruits of his own personal industry, food, clothes, and comfort, which no part of England could afford him for an annual income of less than half that sum; and if measured in actual labour, the English artisan of Manchester, Birmingham, or even Sheffield (where wages are usually nearly at their maximum) will work at least 20 per cent. harder than the Swiss artisan peasant to obtain like commodities and comforts. Meat, or soup with a good bit of meat in it, is the usual fare of the working classes for dinner, at least five days out of the seven. The severity of labour is much lessened by its variety in Switzerland. The culture of the land, the tending of the cattle, and the business of the dairy, are intermixed with weaving, carpenter's work, shoemaking, tailoring, and other handicrafts,—no one man, however, uniting more than one of these branches of industry with his outdoor employment. The experience of every-day life proves that this is no violation of the true principle of division of employments; one which has for its object the attainment of the utmost amount of skill, and consequently of productiveness, in each man's labour. That two distinct arts cannot be advantageously combined, is true, for the time devoted to one must be taken from the pursuit of the other, without, generally speaking, any compensating advantage to energy or health. Not so when the joint occupation is out of doors, and wholly dissimilar. Health is materially benefited, and the elasticity of industry constantly fed and maintained by variety, and the

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absence of that distastefulness always injurious to the effect and vigour of labour, and produced by an unrelieved and monotonous routine of occupation. The muscular energy and the mental as well as physical health of the Swiss is proved by the low rate of their mortality in these northern and German cantons: where morals are unimpaired by the Italian associations or the foreign contamination to which the southern cities are exposed, the mortality varies from one in fifty to one in fifty-five. I do not include the towns, but speak of the country villages and farms. Throughout Switzerland, it is one in forty-three; births are one to twenty-eight.

To return to my host and his *ménage*. We had a plentiful supper. Some cold roast kid, bread, cheese, and fruit, composed our fare. I obtained the following estimate of the ordinary amount and cost of food for a family of five persons in that part of the country:—

	Breakfast.	s. d.
Bread, 2½ lb. (Swiss of 17 oz.) at 1½d. ..	..	3½
Butter or Coffee .. ..	..	1
Milk, 1½ pot (4 pints) at 1½d. per pot ..	..	2
	Dinner.	s. d.
*Meat, 2½ lb. at 3½d. per lb. .. ..	..	6½
Potatoes, 1 gallon. .. ..	..	1
Other vegetables .. ..	..	3
Wine or Beer .. ..	..	4
	Supper.	s. d.
Butter or Coffee .. ..	..	1½
Milk, 1½ pot .. ..	..	2
Bread, 1½ lb. .. ..	..	2½
		2 2½

\* Meat four or five times a week, but will average this quantity daily. When no meat, cheese instead.  
† Often cheese and bread instead.

Thus, a family of five persons, three of whom shall be adults, may live well, as regards food, for 3s. 2d. a head per week. But do they pay this sum in money, as does our English labourer? By no means. I have given the prices such food would cost at the nearest market where it could be purchased; but unless it could be shown that each peasant might convey and sell his own produce at these retail prices, were he not to consume it himself, which is not the case, I may safely state that this food does not cost him the amount, nor anything like it. His milk and cheese is, in nine cases out of ten, his own, and would not fetch the price stated, even if he could afford the time to go and obtain the retail price. Vegetables they grow themselves, and their cost is nothing. But their system is in great measure one of barter. House rent is very low where it is paid; but as the system of mortgage prevails very extensively, houses are far more frequently the property of the occupiers than in England. Clothing is a dearer article than in England, but yet the Swiss peasants are very well and comfortably dressed, and the superiority of their red and yellow dyes gives their coloured cottons a brilliancy and freshness to the last, which no English dye ever yet maintained. In point of living, I am confident that the Swiss peasantry have considerably more of the real wealth of life than our own, and much more than those of any other country in Europe, though they may have less cash to spend.

After we had made an excellent supper, pipes were brought in. As Switzerland imposes no sort of restriction on the importation of the produce of other countries, excellent tobacco is easily procured. After smoking our pipes, a good deal of chat took place, and when bed-time arrived, which was prolonged till 10 o'clock in honour of my presence, my host produced his Bible, a venerable relic of some foregone age, secured with huge clasps, and, after having read a few verses, he gave us a short prayer. This, he told me afterwards, was not his constant custom, except on Sundays, but that it was the anniversary of his wedding day. On the subject of manufacture, in which he was partly engaged, he assured me he would give me every information the next morning. But this subject I must defer to the present.

#### THE NIGER EXPEDITION.

As we hopefully anticipated last week, the account in the Liverpool papers, announcing the death of all the commanders on this ill-fated Expedition, turns out to be incorrect. Capt. William Allen is convalescent, and Capt. Trotter arrived at Liverpool on Tuesday last, still suffering, however, from the attacks

of ague. The following is a copy of the despatch, written by Captain Trotter, at Fernando Po, but brought by him to Liverpool, and forwarded to the Secretary of the Admiralty:—

Her Majesty's steam-vessel *Albert*, Clarence-cove, Fernando-Po, Oct. 25, 1841.

Sir,—My last letter to you, dated the 18th of September, from the confluence of the Niger and Tchadda, would acquaint the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty that fever had broken out on board the vessels of the Expedition, and that I had found it necessary to despatch the *Soudan* to the sea with all the cases the surgeons deemed to require a change of climate, directing Lieutenant Fishbourne to take charge of her, in the absence of Commander Bird Allen, engaged in his duty as commissioner. I also informed their Lordships in the same letter that the *Albert* was about to proceed up the Niger and the *Wilberforce* up the Tchadda, in prosecution of the objects of the mission. After the departure of the *Soudan*, however, two of the engineers of the *Wilberforce* were taken ill, and the crew had become so weakened by an increased number of cases of fever, that Commander William Allen found it impossible to proceed up the Tchadda, and I accordingly ordered him to take his vessel forthwith to the sea, and, if necessary, on to Ascension. As there was still an engineer quite well on board the *Albert*, and another convalescent, and I considered the ship in other respects quite able to continue longer up the river; and as Dr. McWilliam, the surgeon, thought the fever, when we reached higher up the stream, might probably assume a milder character, and the change of air might soon restore the patients still remaining on board, who were not desirous of going in the *Wilberforce* to the sea; and it being of importance to reach Rabbah this year, to finish the chain of treaties with chiefs on the banks of the Niger, I deemed it my duty to try the experiment, and accordingly I weighed at the same time with the *Wilberforce*, on the 21st of September, and the *Albert* proceeded up the river while she moved down. The cases of sickness, however, continued to increase, till at length, when we got to Egga, on the 28th of September, the only remaining engineer was taken ill, and no officers, excepting Dr. McWilliam, Mr. Willie, mate, and myself, were free from fever. We continued wooding and preparing to return down the river till the 4th of October, when I was myself seized with fever, and Mr. Willie a day or two afterwards. On the 5th of October Mr. Willie weighed and dropped down the river, but was soon prevented by sickness from carrying on duty; and Dr. McWilliam, assisted by only one white seaman, lately recovered from fever, took charge of the vessel, not thinking it right, in my state of fever, to report Mr. Willie's illness. From want of engineers we should have had to drop down the whole length of the river without steam, had not Dr. Stanger, the geologist, in the most spirited manner, after consulting Tredgold's work on steam, and getting some little instruction from the convalescent engineer, undertaken to work the engine himself. The heat of the engine-room affected the engineer so much as to throw him back in his convalescence, and prevent him rendering any further assistance; but Dr. Stanger took the vessel safely below Eboe without anything going wrong with the machinery, while Dr. McWilliam, in addition to his enormous press of duty as a medical officer, conducted the ship down the river in the most able and judicious manner. I may here remark, that the Doctor steered the ship entirely by Commander William Allen's excellent chart of the Niger, of the correctness of which we had a good opportunity of judging on ascending the river, and which proved eminently useful on the passage down; and Mr. Brown, clerk, a native of Africa, who had been up the river before, also rendered him considerable assistance in the piloting.

When about 100 miles from the sea, Captain Becroft happily made his appearance in the *Ethiopia* steamer, having been requested to ascend the river and communicate with us by Commander William Allen of the *Wilberforce*; and it was really a providential mercy that he arrived when he did, for had any accident, however trivial, happened to the engines, they could not have been worked any longer, as Dr. Stanger had no knowledge of the manner of rectifying it. Fever still prevented my going on deck,

and there was no executive officer to take the vessel over the bar, and only one convalescent sailor doing duty, and no black sailor who could properly take the helm. Capt. Becroft, however, came on board with an engineer, and not only took the vessel over the bar, but brought her all the way across to this anchorage (a distance of 160 miles), where we arrived in safety on the 17th inst. The assistance rendered by Capt. Becroft, independent of the services of his vessel, the *Ethiopia*, was, I can assure their Lordships, almost indispensable to the safety of the *Albert*. \* \*

The morning after our arrival here, the sick were all landed in comfortable quarters, provided for the officers and men in the most kind and prompt manner by the agent of the West African Company; and we have reason to believe the climate to be healthy for the present. The air is cooler than the Niger by about 12 degrees. I omitted to mention that off the bar of the Nun we met the *Soudan*, about to re-ascend the river, under charge of Lieut. Strange, in the absence of Lieut. Fishbourne, who had been sent sick to Ascension. She was in a very inefficient state, and returned with us to this anchorage. Mr. Strange is at present in charge of the *Albert*, as well as the *Soudan*, the officers of this ship of every rank being in sick quarters, with the exception of Mr. Mount, assistant clerk, doing duty at the hospital.

[Capt. Trotter here proceeds to report on the state of health of the surviving officers, and to recommend to the consideration of their Lordships, the services of individuals, and the meritorious conduct of all. He then gives some particulars of the return voyage of the *Soudan*, which have in substance already appeared, (see *ante*, p. 67,) and proceeds as follows:—]

I call the disease the "river fever," because the surgeons report it to be of a nature that is not treated of in any work on the subject, and it has such peculiarities as they appear never before to have witnessed either in African or West Indian fever. \* \* The number of deaths that has happened after the vessels got through the Delta, until the sailing of the *Wilberforce* hence for Ascension, is shown in the inclosed paper. I have no exact return of the number taken ill in the *Wilberforce*, but I believe it may be stated that only five white persons escaped the fever in that vessel, whilst there are only four who have not been attacked in the *Albert* up to the present time, and no white person in the *Soudan* escaped it; and when I add, that Dr. McWilliam is of opinion that few, if any, will be fit to return to the coast of Africa who have had the fever, and that every lieutenant excepting Mr. Strange, all the medical officers but Dr. Pritchett and Mr. Thompson, (it is doubtful yet whether Dr. McWilliam has the river fever or not), all the mates, masters, second masters, and clerks, the whole of the engineers and stokers of the Expedition, and the gunner of the *Albert* (the only vessel that has an officer of that rank), have been attacked, their Lordships will be able to form an idea of the paralyzed state of the steam-vessels. It will be impossible for me to inform their Lordships as to the efficiency of the Expedition for future operations until I can get to Ascension. I may, however, observe, that it will be found scarcely possible to officer and man more than one of the steam-vessels, unless assistance be sent from England, or obtained from the strength of the African squadron. As the *Ethiopia* will probably go home in April next, I have obtained the promise of Capt. Becroft to leave his surgeon behind, if he can be spared, who would take an acting order as assistant surgeon, and willingly go up the Niger again, and if he can spare his black engineer also he will endeavour to induce him to remain out with the view of joining the Expedition. Could their Lordships obtain assistant-surgeons and black engineers in England to volunteer for the Expedition it would be most desirable, as it is quite a contingency our obtaining the individuals alluded to belonging to the *Ethiopia*. Dr. McWilliam is quite of opinion, as far as he can judge, that the Niger is not fit for white constitutions, and I shall take care to keep this in view when making arrangements at Ascension, so that the fewest possible number of white men may be continued in the steam-vessels. Capt. Becroft, whose knowledge of the river exceeds that of any other person, is of opinion (and I quite concur with him

on the subject) that the Niger should not be entered before the beginning of July, as it is doubtful whether the river will have sufficiently risen to insure the passage without detention, so that their Lordships may calculate upon the *Albert* and *Wilberforce* remaining at Ascension till the 1st of June. It will be necessary for one steam-vessel to go up the Niger next year, as I left the *Amelia* tender at the confluence of the Niger and the Tchadda, for the protection of the people of the model farm. Not thinking it right to leave up the river any white person after the fatal sickness we had experienced, I placed the vessel in charge of a trustworthy black, with twelve other natives of Africa under him, all intelligent steady men. Their Lordships will remember that they gave permission for the utensils of the model farm to be carried out by the Expedition, which were landed at the desire of Mr. Can, the superintendent, at a spot which he selected for the site of the farm, situated immediately opposite to the confluence; and as Mr. Can made a request for naval protection to his people in the absence of the steamers, which I considered very reasonable, I obtained volunteers to remain there in the *Amelia* before the *Albert* went to Egga; and on my return to the confluence I was too ill to do duty, but Dr. M'William, at my desire, sent nine months' provisions on board, and cowries were left to buy several months' more. In our distressed state it would have been impossible to tow the *Amelia* down the river, but, independently of that consideration, it was, I conceive, necessary to leave a vessel for the protection of the farm people. It is also very desirable that a vessel should get up to Rabbah, if possible, next year, not only to complete a series of treaties which have been already commenced, but to show the people of Rabbah that a man-of-war can get up to their town; and the presence of one of Her Majesty's vessels there might, I conceive, have a beneficial effect in their future treatment of the Nufiani, whom we found much oppressed by the Felatahs, and also tend much to the extinction of the slave trade in the upper part of the Niger. This, however, cannot be determined upon till I meet my brother commissioners at Ascension. Should only one of the steamers ascend the Niger next year, I would prefer one of the larger ones to be selected, from their superior velocity and stowage. \* \* I may state, for their Lordships' information, that the *Albert* and *Wilberforce* could not proceed to England with safety excepting in the summer months, and I consider the *Soudan* as quite incapable of returning to Europe at all. \* \* I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient servant,

H. D. TROTTER, Captain.

The following are the names of officers and men of the Niger Expedition who have died between the 1st of September 1841 (the time of the vessels getting through the Delta of the Niger, on the passage up, and of the first breaking out of the "river fever" on board the *Soudan*), and the 25th of October, 1841. The list does not include any who may have died on the passage to Ascension in the *Dolphin* or *Wilberforce* :—

Her Majesty's Steam-Vessels *Albert*, *Wilberforce*, and *Soudan*.

NAMES.	RANK.
<b>ALBERT—</b>	
F. D. Nightingale .....	Assistant-surgeon.
G. H. Harvey .....	Acting-master.
W. C. Willie .....	Mate.
Albion Lodge .....	Second engineer.
John Peglar .....	Armourer.
George Powell .....	Cooper.
John Burgess .....	Sail-maker's crew.
James Robertson .....	Stoker.
John Fuge .....	Ship's cook.
George Symes .....	Caulker.
Robert Millward .....	Purser's steward.
Lewis J. Wolfe .....	Seamen's schoolmaster.
<b>WILBERFORCE—</b>	
Cyrus Wakeham .....	Purser.
— Kneebone .....	A. B.
— Rablin .....	Snapper.
— Fitzgerald .....	Stoker.
<b>SOUDAN—</b>	
Bird Allen .....	Commander.
W. B. Marshall .....	Acting-surgeon.
H. Coleman .....	Assistant-surgeon.
N. Waters .....	Clerk in charge.
W. Levinge .....	Captain's steward.
James Thomas .....	Carpenter's crew.
Christopher Higley .....	Stoker.
William Kingdon .....	Seamen's schoolmaster.

H. D. TROTTER, Captain.

#### OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

As we intimated last week, invitations were forwarded to Baron von Humboldt by the officers of the Royal and the Royal Geographical Societies, inviting this distinguished traveller to a public dinner. The Baron, while he acknowledges himself deeply sensible of the honour thus intended, and thanks his scientific friends for this manifestation of kindness, has expressed his regret that he is compelled to decline the invitation, as the visit of His Majesty the King of Prussia, to whom he wished to devote all his time and attention, is necessarily limited to a few days. At the close of the meeting of the Geographical Society on Monday, Mr. Murchison alluded to these circumstances, and stated that since the project had been talked of, he had received letters from admirers of the great traveller, in Ireland, Scotland, and distant parts, who were anxious to attend and do honour to him.

Many of our readers must have heard of the Franklin Press—the Press at which the philosopher laboured as a pressman in 1726, when he first came to London. In 1768, when he arrived in this country as agent for Massachusetts, he visited the old printing-office, and addressing the men then working at the press, he said, "Come, my friends, we will drink together. It is now forty years since I worked like you at this Press as a journeyman-printer—he you industrious as I have been, and you will, as I have done, reap the reward of it." This Press, a sort of venerated relic in the trade, became at length, by descent and purchase, the property of Messrs. Harild. The circumstance, incidentally mentioned in the *Athenæum* (No. 543), led many persons to visit the warehouse of Messrs. Harild; among others Mr. J. B. Murray, of New York, who expressed an anxious wish that it should be preserved in the Museum of the Philadelphia Philosophical Society. To this proposition the Messrs. Harild gave a willing assent, on condition that a donation should be made to the Printers' Pension Society. Subsequently the Press was presented unconditionally to Mr. Murray, and by him to the Philosophical Society. But anxious to carry into effect the benevolent intentions of the Messrs. Harild, Mr. Murray resolved to exhibit it at Liverpool, where it had arrived en route for America, and the Rev. Hugh McNeile consented to deliver a lecture on the Life of Franklin. The result was a clear balance of 150*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*, which the Messrs. Harild have invested in the funds, in aid of an endowment for one disabled printer, to be called "The Franklin Pensioner." Thus, as was observed by Mr. Murray, "each country will be put in possession of a new memorial of Franklin: America of her citizen's Press, and England of an endowment bearing his name; directly resulting from the fact of his having worked at an English press; and in accordance with his benevolent and provident disposition." In furtherance of this object, the Lecture has been published, illustrated by a drawing of the Press, and a fac-simile of a letter addressed by Franklin to the Rev. George Whitfield, respecting the proposed colonization of Ohio. The proceeds are of course destined to the like purpose, and subscriptions are earnestly requested: they will not, we should hope, be asked for in vain. The history of this Press and the proposed endowment has in it something of romance, and yet it works out to a benevolent result, strictly in agreement with the practical and provident teachings of the Philosopher.

The Annual General Meeting of the members of the Institution of Civil Engineers, was held on Tuesday, when the medals awarded in November last, (see No. 735,) for papers of merit read at the meetings during the past session, were presented. The Report of the Council upon the proceedings of the past year, and the finances of the Institution, was then read. The following members of council were elected. James Walker, *President*,—William Cubitt, Bryan Donkin, Joshua Field, Henry R. Palmer, *Vice Presidents*,—George Lowe, John Macneill, James M. Rendel, Samuel Seaward, Robert Sibley, James Simpson, Thomas Wickstead, Wm. Tierney Clark, George Rennie, John Taylor, Frederick Braithwaite, William Cubitt. The President announced the papers to be read at the next meeting, and then addressed the members, especially those who aspired

to join the profession, and recommended more application to the practical parts of engineering, in order to the more correct use of theory. He instanced the recent engineering appointments to the colonies; and certainly in foreign countries, where artizans must be created, the engineer is called upon to possess more practical knowledge than in this country, where intelligent contractors save him much of the details of the work. Here the master-mind conceives an idea, and ready instruments are found to carry it out; but there the same mind must originate the plan and give the details of execution.

A project is on foot for the formation of a Society to be called the "Society for the promotion of the Metropolitan Improvements." The immediate objects of the Society are: 1.—To urge upon the Government the propriety of acting upon the report of the Committee of the House of Commons of 1839, instead of carrying into effect the mutilated plans adopted on the ground of economy by the Committee of 1840. 2.—To induce Government to undertake a survey of London and the whole of the surrounding district, with a view to a connected and comprehensive plan for the improvement of the metropolis and its suburbs;—embracing the new lines of communication that require to be formed between quarters of the town now separated by a labyrinth of lanes and alleys,—the open spaces needed for health and recreation,—the main sewers that should be constructed in low and crowded neighbourhoods now without any effectual drainage, and the most practicable mode of forming a quay or road-way along the banks of the Thames. 3.—To discuss the merits of any plans of metropolitan improvement that may be submitted to the House of Commons, and when a comprehensive plan worthy of a capital, which it is no exaggeration to say is in extent and influence the first city in the world, has received the approbation of the House, to promote its adoption. There can be no doubt that the subject is one of great public interest, and that had some such comprehensive plan been adopted fifty years since, one-half the money since expended might have been saved, and London greatly improved, so far as affects the health and accommodation of its inhabitants. It does not at all follow that when such a plan is determined on, it must forthwith be carried into execution—but rather that all future expenditure should be directed to the object. The completion, however, of the plan itself is not so visionary and distant a speculation as might be at first supposed. In an article on "Metropolitan Improvements" in the *Westminster Review* (No. 71), the subject is very fully considered, and it is there shown, that a rate of only *sixpence* on the rental of the metropolis and the suburban districts, would produce nearly 200,000*l.* per annum. Now if such rate was charged as a landlord's tax, it would, in our opinion, be cheerfully paid; and in three or four years we should have accomplished all that is at present contemplated.

We are sorry to have to announce the death of that excellent pantomimic artist, Mr. Ducrow, in his fifty-fourth year. It appears that he never entirely recovered from the shock caused by the destruction of his theatre. In the annals of horsemanship, his name will be as celebrated as that of Taglioni in the chronicle of dancing.

Piratical reprinting goes on thrivily in Belgium, as our booksellers will find out to their cost, when the pirates, acting on the suggestion of King Leopold, turn their attention to English works, and the supply of the American and colonial market. Thus we learn that one Belgian company is now selling for 1*fr.* 40*c.*, a work of M. de Balzac which sells in Paris for 7*fr.* 50*c.* There are 2,000 subscribers to the works issued by this company, and each receives a volume every week, at the price of 70*c.* Another company is publishing, under the title of *Tresor Historique*, the best works of French contemporary historians, at 1*fr.* 25*c.* for the octavo volume.—Thiers's *History of the Revolution*, which sells for 40*fr.* or 50*fr.* at Paris, is sold by the company in question for 12*fr.* 50*c.*, and it is illustrated with ten lithographic portraits. This work has returned a profit of 2,500*fr.* in ten weeks. The historical works of De Barante, Mignet, and Villemain have been equally successful. At present, nine-tenths of this trade is confined to the re-issue of French works, and such re-issues are, we regret to say, the common stock-in-

trade of books in London. interest have printers' jobs on simulators London may single copy London purposes of and just in selves robb robbers, and nor supply plies, any copyright

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trade of but too many of the foreign booksellers in London. It is a fact that French works of great interest have been obtained, sheet by sheet, from the printers' journeymen, so that the printing has gone on simultaneously in Paris and Brussels, and the London market been fully supplied, even before a single copy of the genuine edition had arrived. Our London publishers will soon begin to suffer from the effects of this system, and it would be more liberal and just, if, instead of waiting until they are themselves robbed, they were at once to denounce the robbers, and enter into an engagement neither to sell nor supply, nor trade with any one who sells or supplies, any work published in Belgium, of which a copyright exists in France or elsewhere.

The architectural labours and ornamented decorations of the new constructions at the *Palais des Pairs*, in the Luxembourg, are now finished, with the exception of the monumental and allegorical paintings of the vault of the grand hall of the Assembly; to give the artists time for completing which, the Peers have consented to postpone entering on their new place of meeting till the middle of February.

Rossini's *Stabat* seems doomed to furnish as much matter of contention to lawyers as of controversy to critics. Not only is there a trial pending between two rival publishers touching its property,—diversified by the incident of one contending party, M. Schlesinger, being assaulted on leaving the court, by a *Sieur Massé*, shopman of the other,—but M. Pillet, of the *Académie Royale*, raises up his voice to regulate the performance of said *Stabat* at the Italian Opera. There is, it appears, a compact between the two theatres as to the number of performances to be given at each, and M. Pillet chooses to consider these morning concerts as equivalent to evening operatic representations. They order these things amusingly in France! The *Gazette Musicale*, in its report of the trial alluded to, gives also Rossini's last *bon-mot*. On being pressed again to sing for the French stage, "Yes," said he, "I may return—but not till the sabbath of the Jews is over." M. Meyerbeer and M. Halévy, the reigning composers, being both, if we mistake not, of the Jewish persuasion.

The Minister of the Interior has commissioned M. Alaux to paint four full-length portraits, and three historical pictures, for the decoration of the grand Chamber of the *Cour des Comptes* in the new Palace on the *Quai d'Orsay*. The portraits are to be those of l'Hôpital, Etienne Pasquier, Nicolai, and Colbert. The first picture is to represent the founding of the *Chambre des Comptes* by St. Louis; the second, the founding of the *Cour des Comptes* by the Emperor Napoleon; and the third, Louis Philippe ordering that all the reports addressed to the King by the *Cour des Comptes* should be published. He has also issued an ordonnance, in conformity with the report of the Minister of Public Instruction, authorizing the erection of a monument to the celebrated physician Bichat, in the town of Bourg, in which he commenced his studies.

M. de Sismondi has been appointed a Chevalier of the Legion of Honour; and the King of Holland has conferred the decoration of the *Oaken Crown* on Messrs. Meyerbeer, Halévy, and Fromental.

## SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

### ROYAL SOCIETY.

Dec. 16.—Lieut.-Col. Sykes, V.P., in the chair.—J. J. Bennett, Esq. was elected a Fellow.

The following papers were read, viz.:—"Papers from the several Magnetic Observatories established in India, addressed to the Secretary of the Royal Society, by direction of the Honourable East India Company."

"On a Calculating Machine," by the Rev. H. Mosely, M.A.—The object which the author proposes to accomplish in the construction of this machine, is to determine mechanically the products, quotients, logarithms, squares, and other powers of the natural numbers, by means of combinations of greater simplicity than have hitherto been applied to the purposes of mechanical calculation. The paper was accompanied by a figure illustrating the principle of the machine, but not representing the mechanical

details of its construction. An outline is then given of the essential parts of the instrument, and of the theory of their operation.

Jan. 6.—Lieut.-Col. Sykes, V.P., in the chair.—Lieut. T. J. Newbold was elected a Fellow.

The reading of a paper entitled, "On Fibre," by M. Barry, M.D., was resumed and concluded.

### GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

Jan. 24.—W. R. Hamilton, Esq., President, in the chair.

1. A letter was read from Colonel Chesney, stating that he had received a letter from Colonel Alderson, of the Engineers, mentioning the interesting fact, that a line of levels has, by Lieut. Symonds, of the same corps, been carried from Jaffa to the Dead Sea. The work is said to have come out admirably, and the result is, that the Dead Sea is 1,607 feet lower than the highest house in Jaffa, which, from the height of Jaffa above the Mediterranean, leaves a difference of 1,400 feet between the two seas.

2. Extract of a letter from Capt. W. C. Symonds, dated Auckland, 4th of October, 1841. Capt. Symonds had at length succeeded in making his way to the interior of the northern island of New Zealand, and was preparing a chart, a short detail of his observations, and a vocabulary of nearly 3,000 words, which, when completed, he would forward to the Geographical Society. He had traced the Waipa and Waicato rivers to their sources, as also the Thames, ascertained the sources of the Wanganui and Manawatu rivers, which flow into Cook's Straits, visited the twenty lakes, which occupy a great portion of the central and north-east part of the island, and ultimately inspected the chain of hot springs which runs across the island in a line from Mount Edgecomb, in the Bay of Plenty, and nearly south-west to Mount Egmont on the western coast. He says he had found the natives very different from what they are represented at home. Where they have had no previous intimate communication with Europeans, they receive the traveller uniformly well,—though he cannot say so much for those who have adopted some of the worst of our customs. They are fickle and capacious, and consequently very difficult to deal with. In their fits of anger they would rob, but never attack the person of a European; and if they are avaricious and grinding in their bargains with any one possessing property, they are always hospitable and kind where one is utterly destitute. "I have never," adds the Captain, "performed a journey yet, that I have not, on my return, been obliged to carry a load myself, besides leaving many useful articles behind, in consequence of not being able to get a sufficient number of natives to carry them."

3. A paper was read from Sir James Alexander, being the Memoir of a map of the country west of the Rocky Mountains. From this paper it appears, that the American Fur Company has no ports to the west of the Rocky Mountains. The Hudson's Bay Company have the entire range of the waters of the Columbia, from the 54th parallel, the Russian boundary, and south towards California. The American Fur Company now confine their enterprises to the Rocky Mountains, and east of them. "An Anglo-Saxon colony," says Sir James Alexander, "might attain great prosperity on the north bank of the Columbia, when friendly relations are established with China." It appears from information received from Mr. Thompson, agent of the British North West Company, that the Mountains about the Flat Head river attain the immense elevation of 25,000 feet. The buffalo, it seems, never goes westward of the Rocky Mountains. East of the *Trois Têtes* the Big-horn river, in lat. 44°, runs forty miles through the mountains, the gap but just wide enough for the river, with a few exceptions, whilst precipices of 1,000 feet inclose it on both sides. In 1826, J. S. Smith and J. Bridges, fur traders, passed through on a raft, and Mr. Ashley constructed here skin boats, and embarked his furs for St. Louis. South of the *Trois Têtes*, in about lat. 42°, is the notch in the Rocky Mountains recently discovered, (along the bank of the "Sweet Water," a branch of the North Platte,) through which a wagon could be driven to the Pacific. This is a most important and valuable opening. According to the trappers of St. Fé, the country from the Colorado to the Arkansas and Platte, is very

mountainous, and the valleys small. Here also they report the existence of a tribe supposed to be the last Welsh colony, and on this subject Sir James gives a curious account, from the affidavit of a Welsh minister, Mr. Morgan Jones, of the manner in which the discovery was made. Mr. Bartlett, in whose possession the affidavit is, has just sent a very interesting memoir of 250 closely written pages on this lost colony to the Society of Northern Antiquaries at Copenhagen, a copy of which will be forwarded to the Royal Geographical Society.

4. The next paper read was, some desultory remarks upon three wandering tribes of Asia Minor, which have hitherto been termed *Turkomans*. These tribes are the *Legbeys*, the *Turkomans*, and the *Yoorucks*.

A paper was also read, being a letter addressed to the President of the Society by the Chevalier de Parvay, on the following three subjects; the Plateau of Pamer, the Kafirs of Pamer, and on figures of the Indian Boudha, found at Uxmal in Yucatan.

### ASIATIC SOCIETY.

Jan. 15.—The Right Honourable Sir Alexander Johnston, in the chair.

A paper, by Lieut. Newbold, "On the Hindu Processes followed in quarrying and polishing Granite," was read by the Secretary.—The most usual mode followed in India, is to employ the agency of fire. In this process, the granite rock is covered with dry bushes of the various acacias common on the plains, which are then fired, and kept burning until quite consumed. The intense heat causes a separation or exfoliation of the granite, to the depth, perhaps, of 24 inches, in the centre of the fire, but gradually thinning off towards the edges. The piece thus exfoliated is then detached, by driving in small iron wedges at the extremities, and is finally raised by a powerful lever. Sometimes the rock proves more refractory than usual, and then it is customary to pour cold water upon it when hot, or to drop on the surface a heavy boulder of greenstone or granite. When blocks are required for statuary or millstones, or for any other purpose where greater thickness than one or two feet is requisite, another process is followed, precisely similar to that employed by the ancient Egyptians in quarrying the granite of Syene. A great number of holes, an inch square, and of different depths, according to the size of the block wanted, are bored in the rock, close to each other, forming a connected chain around the piece to be detached. Each hole is then fitted with an iron wedge, and the whole are simultaneously and unerringly struck with iron hammers, until their united force overcomes the adhesion of the block. The chisels used in piercing the holes, are kept cool, by pouring water upon them while working, as is done in Europe. When long and thinner slabs are required for bridges, pavements, lintels, &c., a third process is employed, combining the principles of the two former. The rock is heated, as in the first mode, and the separation is completed by driving wedges into a chain of holes, as in the second. In this way, Lieut. Newbold has seen blocks of 80 feet in length separated. He also observed, that the Hindus take advantage of the calorific action of the sun's rays, in promoting the separation of the granite slabs; and that they, therefore, select the hot season for their work. He found the temperature of a rock at De-wanconda to be 1204°, while that of the surrounding air was only 100° in the sun, and 95½° in the shade. Sometimes they pour cold water into the clefts made by the wedges, which greatly hastens the separation of the block. The polish given to Indian granites, is at least equal to what is found in Egypt; and good specimens may be seen in the Mausolea of Golconda, at Bejanugger, Galberga, and many other places in the peninsula. To effect this beautiful polish, two processes are followed. When a flat surface is required, the granite is slightly smoothed and flattened by an iron tool; and is then rubbed with a large and heavy block of granite, hollowed on its under surface, and having the hollow filled up by a mixture of lac and corundum. The mixture adheres strongly to the stone, which is tightly fixed between two rods. The extremities of these rods form the handles for two workmen, who draw the stone backwards and forwards over the block to be polished, occa-

sionally throwing water on the surface to prevent the lac from melting. When the piece to be polished is of a more varied form, as a cornice or moulding, or figure, a piece of wood, with the corundum mixture, or even a lump of the mixture alone, is used instead of the granite polisher. Any one who has seen the process, will be strongly reminded of it by the paintings at Thebes, representing sculptors polishing a statue, which are copied by Rossellini, and in Wilkinson's 'Ancient Egyptians.' Lieut. Newbold mentioned a remarkable fact connected with the granite of India; that much of it was in the form of spheroids and bosses, having a concentric laminar structure, like the coats of an onion, which frequently exfoliated by the action of the air, throwing off curved laminae of very varied magnitude. This exfoliation of mountain masses, produces some of the most picturesque features of the Indian landscape. It is the cause of its singular dome-shaped mountains and mamillary masses, crowned with tors which would in England be considered Druidical. Rough sketches of some of these, from Bellary and Bayagadda, were shown to the meeting, strongly resembling the Cheese-wring and Logan stones, so well known in Cornwall. The paper concluded with some account of the uses to which granite is applied in India; and a brief notice of the colossal temples and figures, and of the pillars, obelisks, and bridges of this material existing throughout the peninsula.

**HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY.**—Jan. 11.—R. W. Barchard, Esq., in the chair.—A paper 'On the Cultivation of Grapes on Flued Walls in the open Air in Scotland,' by Mr. G. Shiells, gardener to Lord Blantyre, was read. This paper was written at the request of the Horticultural Society, in consequence of Mr. Shiells sending, in October last (see No. 730), some perfectly ripened and well-coloured Black Hamburgh Grapes. W. H. Storey, Esq., exhibited two seedling Epacris; to one named Carnumbrata a Banksian medal was awarded. Mr. B. Fielder, gardener to W. Linwood, Esq., exhibited cut specimens of *Denbrobium speciosum* (Showy Den-drobium); the flowers were in great beauty, and had no doubt been produced by keeping the plant during the summer in a cool greenhouse, and afterwards placing it in a high temperature: a Banksian medal was given for this. J. Bateman, Esq., sent a spike of a new *Oncidium* related to *Cavendishianum*; the flowers are very large and yellow, and have a brown mark on their margins, which probably, if the blossoms were produced in the summer, would be richer and more conspicuous; a Banksian medal was awarded for it. From C. B. Warner, Esq., was a single blossom of a new *Habranthus* from South America; it was of a rich vermilion colour, more brilliant and larger than any of its congeners; a Banksian medal was given for it. There were two good Pines, one, a Providence, weighing 5 lb. 2 oz., and the other, an Enville, weighing 4 lb. 7 oz., from Mr. Bisset, gardener to Sir T. Williams, of Burwood House, Cobham; to these a Banksian medal was awarded. A certificate was given for three from Mr. Hatch, gardener to P. J. Miles, Esq., Leigh Court, Bristol; one was a Queen, weighing 3 lb. 8 oz., and the others were Envilles, weighing respectively 3 lb. 9 oz. and 2 lb. 4 oz. Mr. E. Beck exhibited a slate tub for large Orange-trees, which, from the durability of the material, is an improvement upon wooden boxes; and also some slate pots, which he thinks for some plants, such as *Pelargoniums*, will answer better than porous ones, as there will be no evaporation from the sides; a *Pelargonium* and a *Calceolaria*, growing in slate pots, were exhibited.

**LINNEAN SOCIETY.**—Jan. 18.—Robert Brown, Esq., in the chair.—The resolutions of the Council on the appointment of a Librarian, in the room of the late Prof. David Don, were laid before the meeting. Two candidates for the vacant office were announced, Dr. Leman and Mr. Kippist. The election will take place on the 15th of February, and the ballot will be open from half-past seven o'clock to nine in the evening. The chairman announced the loss the Society had sustained in the death of Mr. Lambert, one of the founders of the Society. In consequence, the meeting was adjourned.

## MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

SAT.	Westminster Medical Society .....	Eight, P. M.
MON.	Institute of British Architects .....	Eight.
	(Horticultural Society .....	Two.
	Institution of Civil Engineers .....	Eight.
TUES.	Linnean Society .....	Eight.
	Chemical Society .....	Eight.
WED.	Geological Society .....	1 p. Eight
	Society of Arts .....	Eight.
	Royal Society .....	1 p. Eight.
THUR.	Zoological Society (Gen. Bus.) .....	Three.
	Society of Antiquaries .....	Eight.
FRI.	Royal Institution .....	1 p. Eight.
	Botanical Society .....	Eight.

## MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

## CONTEMPORARY MUSICAL COMPOSERS.

FELIX MENDELSSOHN BARTHOLODY.

WERE precedence in a gallery of musical portraits to be determined according to the vivid colours and marked forms possessed by its subjects, the composer whose '*Die sept Variations Serieses pour le Piano-forte*, Op. 54, published by Ewer, bring him under notice, would claim of right—as he here takes by accident—a prominent place.

There is significance in the title before us. All those who fly to "Variations," as "something containing a tune," and thus more engaging than the musty sonatas of Clementi and Dussek, by which their mothers were tortured in their school days,—who associate the word with the glittering embroideries wrought upon the Opera melodies of the hour by Herz and Czerny, will be apt to escape from Goethe's friend and Zelter's pupil on this occasion. Indeed, we suspect that—forgetting his delicious '*Lieder ohne Worte*,' at once highly finished gems and delicate trifles,—many in England will be disposed to regard a new work by Mendelssohn with respect, rather than desire for immediate intimacy. Truth to say, they are right in so doing; since there is no utterance of the master but will give them greater trouble in thinking, as well as in playing, than is acceptable to the million. Neither are Mendelssohn's compositions peculiarly calculated to engage those who love the piano for the sake of *pianism*. A few delicate trifles apart, either the organ or the orchestra seems to be always uppermost in his mind when composing. Few of the rich and flowing melodies seductive to the expressive finger, such as *sein* Hummel's better works,—few of the sparkling and spirited flourishes, so tempting to an executant, vigorous as well as delicate such as enchain thought to thought in the compositions of Moscheles,—are to be encountered in Mendelssohn's pianoforte quartets, or *scherzi*, or concertos. Melody there is; but it is such as suggests, or might have been suggested, by remembrance of oboe, horn, or clarinet, in place of exclusively belonging to the instrument for which it is written: sparkle and spirit enough, but these, again, are more apt to take the generic forms of harp or organ,—the scattered or the resolved chord,—than any of those shapes in which Fancy can so well turn the "dainty devices" of the piano to happy account. In Mendelssohn's music a noble simplicity of design—all episodic introductions rejected—seems to bespeak a spirit akin to that of the Bendemanns and the Overbecks of the Modern Antique German school of painting. Like them, his disdain of meretricious expression may at times mislead him into a partial *flatness*,—his aspirations after breadth of outline may not always be accompanied with the requisite originality of idea; but in the musician's, as in the painter's works, there must be recognized the same high-toned indifference to the humours of the passing crowd,—the same resolution to assert thoughts as superior to conventions; and hence, the same promise of a fame, which may be select, but which must be as salutary in its influences as enduring.

Yet though Mendelssohn appears, by choice and nature, to throw himself back upon the company of Bach and Handel, rather than into the noisy arena of modern competition; it is by no means so certain that some of the newest and most eagerly adopted modes of piano-forte composition, might not be referred to him as originator. The accompanied melody, which is the mainspring of all Thalberg's effects, though used at an earlier period by Weber, if, we mistake not, first seen in its modern and attractive form, in some of Mendelssohn's works. At all events, a more brilliant example of its legitimate use does

not exist, than in the finale to his second concerto. Then his *scherzi* (owing their family likeness to the violin-work, commencing his overture to the 'Midsummer Night's Dream,' gave the first examples of the reiterated chord in quickest passage-music, which the wonder-players have since turned to amazing account.

Another characteristic is, that whereas Chopin's music seems peculiarly acceptable to the feminine sympathies, from the languor of its harmonies, and the delicacy of its forms, Mendelssohn's greater works are only to be grappled with by men. Independent of the vast physical solidity of touch they require, (in their author provided for by his well-known command over the ponderous keys of the organ)—independent of their total freedom from all the coquetties in which "the sex" delight—they are singularly fatiguing to the hand, from the prevalence of *brío* in their movement, from the constant extension over the chord of the octave, which must be maintained, and their general constancy to one particular form of *remplissage* and climax, which precludes the rest to be gained by change of figure, and, consequently, of position.

The "Variations" which have served as our text have been written for the few, rather than the many. The former, will be struck by the harmony and variety pervading the whole seventeen, joined with such an untiring attention to progressive interest, as makes the very brilliant final *coda* appear the inevitable end of the composition, and not four detached useless pages of "hurry," (as the pantomime musicians irreverently denominate brisk music,) tacked on to bring the series to a close with effect. They will observe, too, ample testimony of Mendelssohn's characteristic predilection for the forms of the elder writers. Some of the variations are as pleasantly ancient in their humour as "the changes" on the "Chaconne" of Sebastian Bach. Had the theme possessed features more distinct and melodious, this peculiar manner of working would have made the composition delightful; and it is to be regretted that so much science, ingenuity, and fancy should have been bestowed on so poor an air. But it is not fit that, in closing a notice of an artist we hold in such high admiration, we should touch on his weakest point. Let us, then, say, that all thinkers for or upon the pianoforte will do well to add this composition to their libraries. It presents no insurmountable difficulties, but much to keep interest alive, and to repay close and thoughtful investigation.

## MISCELLANEA

**Academy of Sciences.**—Jan. 10, 17.—A paper by M. Durocher, giving an account of his geological researches in the north of Europe, and especially of the phenomena of erratic blocks, occupied both meetings. He observed, that the streaks found on the surfaces of rounded rock, were in Norwegian Lapland always accompanied by heaps of diluvial matter. The erratic blocks were generally either of granite or gneiss; but between St. Petersburg and the Niemen, no less than fourteen different kinds of rock were found, all the known sites of which were in Finland. These blocks were sometimes twenty and twenty-five feet in thickness, and their angles by no means rounded or worn. The Volga is the most eastern limit in which these blocks are found. Blocks of granite appear to have been carried to greater distances than those of limestone. Another circumstance to be remarked was, that these blocks lie either in or upon vast deposits of sand, or diluvial matter regularly stratified in nearly horizontal layers. This showed that the sand had been deposited in a sea not greatly agitated, and, therefore, the supposition that the blocks had, in all cases, been carried by a violent diluvial current, was not admissible. It was probable, M. Durocher thought, that these blocks had been floated on ice fields, and had been deposited at the bottom of the sea by the melting of the ice. At the same time, he thought it evident that an immense diluvial current, the origin of which there was as yet no means of conjecturing, had taken place; that it had commenced very far north; that it was probably accompanied by an immense quantity of floating ice, and that it had spread over all that part of Europe comprised between Greenland and the Ural Mountains in Russia. The current had



been turned southwards, covering Sweden, Norway, and Finland, breaking off rocks from the mountains as it passed along, polishing the surface of the rocks, and leaving streaks on them from the action of the sand, stone, and rocks, which it rolled onwards. The current had extended into Germany, Russia, and Poland, but its force had apparently become weaker as it went further south; towards the east it had been lost in the immense plains of Russia, and in Germany had been stopped by ranges of mountains. Long lines of *osars*, or heaps of detrital matter, were found accompanying the erratic blocks, and their prevalent direction was from N.N.E., to S.S.W. No traces of human remains had been found in any of these diluvial deposits. The Academy passed a vote of thanks to M. Durocher for his elaborate researches. M. Bequerel commenced the reading of a paper on the electro-chemical properties of various substances. A further communication was made by M. Boudin, chief medical officer of the military hospital at Marseilles, on the use of minute doses of arsenic as a substitute, or partial substitute, for quinine, in the cure of agues and certain classes of fever. The quantity of quinine used every year in Algeria, for the army, was valued at more than 100,000 fr., and therefore the cheapness of arsenic rendered the partial substitution of this substance of great importance.

**Naples.**—Letters from Naples speak with enthusiasm of the gay doings there. What, however, more interests us than the *fêtes*, the balls, the belles, or the beau monde itself, is the substantial good which, according to report, is working out in that city of fierce contrast—of pleasure and misery, of luxury and want. Thus one writes:—"Those who knew Naples a few years ago, are in admiration at the great improvements which have since taken place, owing to the excellent police arrangements, by which mendicity is at an end, the streets daily swept; and the introduction of gas throughout the city, is all that is wanted. The King is indefatigable in his attentions to the numerous embellishments of the city, as well as to works of utility. The railway to Castellamare will be terminated by next summer. Another to Caserta is being constructed, at the King's own expense, which will be completed next year, and will render the vicinity of that most beautiful of royal residences the favourite *villeggiatura* of the Neapolitan nobility."

**Attempt to ascend Mount Wellington.**—[From the *Hobart Town Courier*.]—"Mr. Huggins, a youth of delicate frame, and a person of the name of Cooper, having resolved to ascend Mount Wellington, proceeded up the mountain towards that part where the tall basaltic columns, so visible on a clear day, and deep chasms, oppose any further progress. They were puzzled at the difficulties, and determined to return; but turned towards the left instead of the right, wandering on through a great many opposing obstacles, and only further entangling themselves. As night came on they shared with one another their little stock of provisions, and Huggins lay down to sleep in a cleft, having given his watch and a pistol which he had with him to Cooper, who kept watch, and did not sleep the whole night. They had previously endeavoured, but in vain, to make a fire with the pistol and some dried wood. In the morning they pursued their way, and Huggins became very much fatigued, and descended with great difficulty. At last they came to a rivulet, and Cooper, who was much stronger in frame, told Huggins as he was unable to proceed further, that at all events the rivulet led somewhere where he could get assistance, and that he would see where it led to, and retrace his steps to the point where he left his companion. He pursued the course of the rivulet for some distance, and came to a cataract fourteen or fifteen feet in height. He descended this, and then returned, thinking that if Huggins could reach this point all would be safe. He retraced his path, and after the lapse of some time reached the place where he left him, when, to his astonishment, he was gone. He called and traversed the bush in every direction around, but there was no answer. At length, at some distance, on a kind of opposing eminence, he saw a figure which he took to be that of Huggins, and called to him as loudly as he could, but the figure, without seeming to pay any attention, darted into the bush like one demented, and it is probable, indeed, that the poor boy's senses became bewildered, as frequently

happens in such cases. It is even now mercy to hope that such was the case, and that he perished—for dead long since he must be—unconscious of all those pangs of misery and desolation which must otherwise have assailed him in such a place, and with all the remembrances of his home and family still fresh on his mind. At this time Cooper began to suffer severely from hunger. He wandered about, and again made for the water, but thinks the branch he met the second time was different from the first. He quenched his thirst, but was much tormented with hunger. He tried to sleep, and dreamt, as he regularly did on all occasions of his sleeping, that the two shepherds who came out with him in the *Seahorse* brought him food. After this night he felt no strong sensation of hunger, but was pursued by an uncontrollable thirst; and whenever he deviated any distance from the creek, he was irresistibly impelled back. He struggled on through the bush without his shoes, and, in this way, for five days, he proceeded without food or shelter, and in the most intense cold at nights, by the moonlight of which he sometimes travelled, and sleeping during the day. On all occasions, in spite of cold and hunger, he states that he slept soundly, and always dreamt of the shepherds bringing him provisions. He continued to pursue the course of the stream until Friday, not having tasted food since Sunday, when he came in view of a hut, and picked up two turnips. By this time he had lost all reckoning of time, and was reduced to the most deplorable state of weakness. Although the hut was not more than one hundred and fifty yards from where he stood, yet so great was his exhaustion, that he calculates it took him *three hours* to reach it. His figure presented a truly distressing appearance. His clothes were everywhere torn from his body, which had been very much lacerated by his exertions in forcing himself through the thickets, and his legs were covered with sores. His shoes were gone from his feet, which were benumbed; and it is feared that he will lose some of his toes. Strong parties from the 51st Regiment, and from the crews of the *Erebus* and *Terror*, were despatched in search of Mr. Huggins, but there can be little doubt that the poor fellow had perished of cold and hunger.

**Severity of the Winter.**—We learn from the foreign papers, that the winter has been unusually severe in the south of Europe. At Trieste, on the 3rd instant, the roads were blocked up with snow, and the mails from France and Italy were two days in arrear, as were also the diligences from Vienna and Hungary. At Rome, on the 9th instant, there was a fall of snow which remained on the ground for several hours, and on the 13th the hills of Albano and Tusculum were still covered with snow. The cold was 5 degrees of Reaumur, or 22 of Fahrenheit, below freezing point, which is an unusual circumstance in the Roman states. At Madrid, where, however, intense cold in winter is not a rare occurrence, the great basin of the Buen-Retiro was covered with ice several inches thick, and two sentinels of the Queen's Palace were frozen to death at their posts. A sentinel was also frozen to death at Saragossa, and another at Taragona. At Carthage, where severe cold is seldom known, the thermometer fell for the first time to a degree and a half below zero, and the hills were covered with snow. At Valencia it snowed for three hours, and the thermometer fell 4 degrees Centigrade, or 7 Fahrenheit, below freezing point. Similar accounts have been received from Burgos, Barcelona, and Cordova; in many places the vines have been destroyed by the frost. At Algiers the thermometer stood at 3 degrees below zero. The natives said the temperature had not been so low for twenty years.

**Education of the Roman People.**—The *Diario di Roma* gives an account of the progress of evening schools for the instruction of working men, in the pontifical capital. These schools have greatly multiplied in Rome, and the government is urging fathers of families and masters to send to them their children and apprentices. The clergy also lend their exertions to the promotion of this branch of education.

**TO CORRESPONDENTS.**—F. L.—L. D. received.—No journal accompanied the note of R. D. M. C.—We will hand over the Meteorological Observations forwarded from Cadix to those best able, by comparison with numberless others, to turn them to good use. We should be most happy to hear from our obliging correspondent on subjects of more general interest.

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